

METHODS  
AND  
FIELDS  
OF  
SOCIAL  
WORK  
IN  
INDIA



**METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK  
IN INDIA**

***By the Same Author***

**INDIAN ECONOMIC PROBLEMS  
HUMOROUSLY YOURS**



# METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK IN INDIA

K. K. JACOB

*Professor and Director of Field Work, Udaipur School of Social Work  
Udaipur, Rajasthan*



ASIA PUBLISHING HOUSE  
BOMBAY • CALCUTTA • NEW DELHI • MADRAS  
LUCKNOW • LONDON • NEW YORK

***First Edition: 1918***

**PRINTED IN INDIA  
BY M. G. DANIEL AT THOMPSON & CO. PRIVATE LTD  
MADRAS 1 AND PUBLISHED BY P. S. JAYASINGHE  
ASIA PUBLISHING HOUSE, BOMBAY, 1**

***To***

***The Memory of My Mother***



## FOREWORD TO THE FIRST EDITION

It is less than twenty-five years since the first School of Social Work was started in India and it has only been in the last decade that several other graduate schools of social work have come into being.

Social Work as a profession is therefore of very recent origin here, although the well-springs of social service have roots going back for centuries. This brings about a conflict in some people's minds, because there is inevitably a great deal of confusion between the concept of social service with its long and honourable traditions, and the concept of social work which is of more modern origins.

One of the marks of a profession is that it has developed a systematic body of knowledge which is transmittable in an organized fashion. All professions therefore need to develop books, articles, research studies, and comprehensive philosophical theories.

In India there has been the necessity in these early years of development, to use literature of social work prepared by authors of the United States and the United Kingdom. This state of affairs is rapidly changing and in the next few years there will undoubtedly be an increase in social work literature written by Indian authors.

The basic concepts of social work are universal and there is no such thing as "Indian Social Work" and "American Social Work". The principles are the same, but the culture in which they are applied will be of great significance.

This work of Mr. Jacob's is written in a simple style and will be of interest to the lay person as well as the beginning student. There is an important role for works such as this and the present volume is an important contribution to the development of social work literature in India.

May it be the inspiration for succeeding volumes, illustrated profusely with the specific case problems, the modern social worker finds in this land.

*Madras*

DR. KENNETH W. KINDLESPIRGER  
*Syracuse University of Social Work, U.S.A.*



## PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

The warm welcome extended to the first edition was indeed very heartening. If it indicated that the students of social work and others found it handy, the book may be taken to have served its limited purpose and justified the title of the book, *An Introduction to Social Work in India*. But no one has been more conscious of the limitations and short-comings of the book than myself.

The present volume is the result of the author's endeavour to make its coverage more comprehensive. In fact, it is not just a revised and enlarged edition in the restricted and routine sense of these terms, but is rather a new book which has grown out of the old. The chapters on Methods of Social Work have been given a more detailed treatment. In addition to revising and bringing up-to-date the other chapters, nine new chapters have been included, covering also some of the methods and fields that were missing in the earlier edition, thus justifying the new title of the book, *Methods and Fields of Social Work in India*.

The book seeks to incorporate the theoretical knowledge and practical experience gained in the course of the last decade. It represents the convictions that have grown in the course of these years and inevitably reveals the confusions that still persist. The theoretical basis, basic assumptions and underlying philosophy, have been drawn from standard works on the subject. But my indebtedness to them is not so much for any specific thing I have drawn from them, but rather for all that I have absorbed from them, all that have been assimilated by me so as to become part of my line of thinking and my scheme of values. The bibliography at the end indicates not only the books and publications to which the reader should turn for deeper knowledge and fuller understanding, but also the authors to whom I am indebted.

The scrutiny of professional perfectionists may bring to light several faults and sins of omission and commission in the treatment of the subject. Any departure from traditional lines of

thinking or any treading of unbeaten paths, wherever discernible, is merely suggestive and tentative. I should greatly welcome comments on points of agreement or disagreement on the controversial issues in the subject, from colleagues in the profession. The details regarding the institutions which provide social work education at various levels have been gathered from the literature sent by several of them, and from Government publications and articles giving the list of these. Errors or omissions, if any, in regard to these may be brought to the notice of the author so that they may be rectified at least in future editions.

I am very grateful to Dr. P. T. Thomas, Principal, Udaipur School of Social Work, Udaipur, for writing the introduction to this volume. The thought-provoking and challenging nature of his views—often too original and bold to go unchallenged—should greatly help in developing fresh approaches to problems and new lines of thought and action.

K. K. JACOB

## PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

This book seeks to serve as an introduction to the various methods and the important fields of social work in India. It has been written specially to help those undergoing social work training at various levels, in the professional institutions and the Universities of India and also for the guidance of voluntary social workers attending short-term courses or orientation classes in the various fields of social work. The general reader also, it is expected, will be greatly benefitted by the simple presentation of the subject matter. The important principles and the general perspective of professional social work have all been dealt with. Case-histories and reports could not be included, but it is hoped that each institution will provide a good assortment of case-records and field work reports from Indian setting, for the use of their students. I have made extensive use of the social work literature available in India, for which I express my thanks.

A book of this nature would never have been attempted nor successfully completed but for the co-operation and encouragement



I received from many of those who have been in the field of social work for a long time both in India and abroad. I have had the good fortune to get the guidance of Dr. Kenneth W. Kindlesperger of the Syracuse University School of Social Work, U.S.A., who was in India as Social Work Education Consultant in the Madras School of Social Work for 1917-'18 under the Technical Cooperation Mission of the U.S. Government, and I thank him specially for his kindness in writing the Foreword to the book. I am also very much indebted to Rev. Fr. Kalathil S. J., Rector of Loyola College, for his constant encouragement.

I wish to express my appreciation for the very material assistance I have received from Rev. Fathers A. Fonsaca and C. C. Clump of the Indian Institute of Social Order, Poona. My thanks are specially due to Rev. Fr. Francis Sales, Principal, S. H. College. Thevara, for his helpful suggestions and continued assistance.

Mr. P. T. Thomas, Director, Madras School of Social Work, has been a 'friend, philosopher and guide' to me in the preparation of this book, and my debt to him cannot be adequately expressed. I have also benefitted greatly from the guidance and encouragement of Miss Frances Maria Yasas, Director of the Institute of Social Work, Mangalore. It is necessary, however, to add that I alone am responsible for the views expressed.

K. K. JACOB



## CONTENTS

<i>Foreword to the First Edition</i>	vii
<i>Preface to the Second Edition</i>	ix
<i>Preface to the First Edition</i>	x
<i>Introduction</i>	xv

### PART I : METHODS OF SOCIAL WORK

I EVOLUTION OF SOCIAL WORK	3
II SOCIAL CASE WORK	8
III SOCIAL GROUP WORK	25
IV COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION	35
V SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION	46
VI SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH	59
VII SOCIAL ACTION	63

### PART II : FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

VIII RURAL WELFARE	79
IX COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS	84
X LABOUR WELFARE	92
XI LABOUR LEGISLATION	98
XII CHILD WELFARE	110
XIII CHILD GUIDANCE CLINIC	123

XIV	WELFARE OF TRIBAL AND BACKWARD CLASSES	129
XV	JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION	138
XVI	CARE OF THE DESTITUTE AND THE HANDICAPPED	147
XVII	SOCIAL LEGISLATION	156
XVIII	MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK	165
XIX	PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK	173
XX	SOCIAL EDUCATION	180
XXI	STUDENTS AND SOCIAL WORK	188
XXII	CENTRAL SOCIAL WELFARE BOARD	196
XXIII	U N AGENCIES FOR SOCIAL WELFARE	206
XXIV	FIELD WORK	214
XXV	SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION	227
	LIST OF SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK IN INDIA	236
	<i>Bibliography</i>	249
	<i>Index</i>	259

## INTRODUCTION

Authors are sometimes understandably apologetic about inflicting upon the reading public yet another book, such as theirs, when their predecessors and contemporaries, between them, appear to have said everything that needed to be said on the subject in question. Happily, a book on social work in India needs no apology, for we are only at the bare beginning of authorship in the subject although social work itself as a recognised academic pursuit of some standing, has had none too brief a history in the country. Our oldest School of Social Work, or what is the same under a different name, is old enough to be able to count among its present students the children of its first-year entrants. We have gone beyond the full traditional span of a generation, yet the number of books on social work by Indian authors is too scanty to attract notice. Students of social work in India, no less than teachers, are only too often driven to dependence on foreign literature—mostly American, as it happens—to gather their postulates, concepts and theories. This is not a satisfactory state of affairs when it happens in a field like social work which is so closely bound to the soil of the country, so inseparable from the genius of the people. So, even with some of the inherent intellectual barrenness of social work as a subject to stimulate serious writing, it is far more realistic to go by the empirical material of one's own society than by clichés of doubtful validity that are apt to pass for universal truths. (British literature on the subject used to be mercifully exempt from the charge of intellectual barrenness until they caught up with the new fashion of the 'generic-course'.) The familiar argument that human nature is the same everywhere and that therefore, logically, there can be no such thing as French social work or Chinese social work, is not only hackneyed but sociologically unsound. The sameness of human nature can be proved only with regard to the biological drives of hunger, sex and mother-love which, for that matter, man shares with the animals too and not only amongst the likes of

himself. In any case, the business of social work is with society and not with human nature. Surely, society is not the same everywhere. It is rather unfortunate that in so social a field as social work we have come to be imitative—a trait which Prof. Mahalanobis rightly deplored recently while talking of economic planning.

The republication of Prof. Jacob's earlier book, *An Introduction to Social Work in India* (Madras, 1918), with considerable expansion of the original chapters, and the addition of a number of new chapters, and under the new title of *Methods and Fields of Social Work in India*, is a welcome event if only for the reason that the book testifies to an attempt at a comprehensive survey of methods, fields and training facilities in professional social work in India. That it is by an Indian author must add to it a certain rarity value. This book does not claim to state what is peculiar to social work in the Indian setting although descriptions have been given of fields like labour welfare, community development and welfare of tribes and backward classes, which must seem unusual claimants to the attentions of social work to anyone, who, as in the West, for instance, has been brought up to identify professional social work with social case work. Nor is the author examining a particular thesis, or leading up to an original view point, by and large, except in the chapter on "Social Action" in which he tries to make a case for the methods and skills of social work as means to social action, rather than as ends in themselves. In the main, then, the book follows the known and the seemingly accepted theoretical basis of professional social work. There is value in this in as much as the book is addressed primarily to formal students of social work. But, precisely on that account, it is also of value to the voluntary social worker who may want to, and indeed must, know what it is that the professionals are talking about. The systematic chapter arrangements—it might well be a generous expansion of the subject titles of most social work courses taught in schools of social work in India—and the simple style, bid fair to make the book popular with the student and the lay reader.

The rapid strides made by universities, governments and private enterprise in India in creating training courses in social work and allied services must be satisfying to the kind of statistician to whom figures are the yardsticks of progress, and alarming to people who imagine that quality is important. In the quarter-century since 1916 when the first school of social work was founded in Bombay, the

number of those alone that offer the two-year, post-graduate course leading to the Master's degree or its equivalent, has risen to about twenty—an average of about one per year, and about 1.3 per State. If the present trend continues (there is nothing to indicate the contrary) we shall soon reach the stage where a professional degree in social work will be as common and about as much in professional demand as the LL.B. of today. It used to be the fashion among the 'progress'-minded to put us all to shame by revealing our comparative backwardness in the things that were supposed to be necessary for civilised life. It went somewhat like this: America has one doctor to every thousand of the population; India has one to fifty-thousand; Japan has one graduate (or was it plumber? it matters little) to every hundred adults; India has one to five thousand; the *per capita* consumption of sugar is fifty lbs in Britain to only one lb in India; Sweden has one social worker to every two thousand of the population, but India has only one to (?) . . . but this does not appear to have been calculated precisely. No matter how bad things are, we shall soon catch up and be able to flaunt impressive ratios and percentages, thanks to the national enthusiasm for figures.

Knowledgeable people tell us that even in such a basically important profession as medicine we have almost arrived at the point of diminishing returns. How much easier it is to reach the point—if indeed we have not already reached it—in a profession like social work which is not acknowledged to be of such basic value for nation-building purposes as medicine, for instance? I say 'not acknowledged' deliberately, for I have a point to make here. Is social work really of secondary importance? This is a question that can never be answered to anybody's satisfaction; one might as well try to settle the question whether health is more important than education for nation-building purposes. Nevertheless, there can be no dispute that social work as applied skill and knowledge in the administration of welfare services is a function of primary importance in the Welfare State of the kind we are supposed to be striving for. Social work in this sense—its more appropriate name is social administration—is a professional service of basic value with no less significance for national well-being than health, education and public administration. From this point of view, it would seem that we are not having too much of a good thing, as some are wont to say, what with the steadily increasing numbers emerging

out of schools and university departments of social work. But this kind of reasoning is apt to make us lose sight altogether of the other side of the picture. Do we have enough services to administer, or, for that matter, have we any at all? Closer examination of our situation must bring us the conviction that unless our resources multiply so rapidly as to permit of a vast welfare outlay in the immediate future, the present proliferation of training will only result in letting loose into the arena of job-competition yet another special purpose category of the employable adult. This will be rather like having an abundant supply of doctors and a scarce supply of medical facilities. Professional education must be related to needs, both in quality and quantity. It will be not merely wasteful, but ridiculous, to encourage people to acquire the expertise of one profession or another for its own sake. This has particular validity for the so-called developing countries, ours included, in which the needed husbanding of resources must forbid the luxury of superfluity in professional personnel.

On the one hand, we need to ensure a balance between supply and demand in social work, as indeed in all professions; and, on the other, it is equally important to relate quality with function. Many a social work teacher before now have exercised themselves on the question whether we are, in fact, training social workers for the kind of functions they are actually called upon to discharge in the variety of jobs into which they go. Or, are our training programmes based rather on notions about what ought to be the function of the social worker? It would be all right if the latter were the case but for the inconvenient fact that the social casualties which the Indian social worker has to deal with are not likely to be improved by diagnostic and therapeutic interviews administered in the worker-client setting. Social work as low-grade psychiatry may well have a purpose and a usefulness in societies in which chronic indigence is the result of an unhappy experience in the individual's 'oral' stage, or unemployment the result of some psychological 'blocking' both of which, we are assured, can be set right by use of the appropriate 'relationships'. Unfortunately for us, we in this country are still in the stage in which poverty cannot be seen as anything but poverty, nor unemployment as anything but lack of opportunities. Briefly, for us, a spade is jolly well a spade, and there is no getting away from it. Is there, then, something of an anachronism in India between the actual social problems



and the assumptions on which solutions to them are prescribed in schools of social work? These are issues which Prof. Jacob has chosen to leave alone in his book. It is well that it is so. For, after all, a book written mainly for the benefit of students of social work, and lay persons who might wish to be informed on the subject, is not the place for controversies. In the light of this implicit purpose of the book, Prof. Jacob has admirably succeeded in achieving his objective.

I feel honoured that I have been invited to write an introduction to this very useful book. At the same time, I fear that I might be thought to have outraged the rules of hospitality in more than hinting that we are suffering from an over-abundance of institutions which have for their purpose the dissemination of knowledge on the very subject with which this book is concerned. But, then, we do suffer, don't we? from an over-abundance of population. Has that led anyone to suggest that promotion of means of health is undesirable? And again, all said and done, there may be some value in numbers; it increases the probability of discovering the best. St Augustine's advice seems relevant to the occasion: "Do not despair; one thief was saved." True, he confounded it all by going on to say: "Do not presume; one thief was damned," but no matter: let us be optimistic.

P. T. THOMAS

*Udaipur*  
8 September 1918

*Principal, Udaipur School of  
Social Work, Udaipur, Rajasthan*



**PART I**  
**METHODS OF SOCIAL WORK**



## CHAPTER I

### EVOLUTION OF SOCIAL WORK

Social problems have always been with us, but their impact has never been so marked as in the present century. Each generation had tried to solve them as best as they could, but never achieving a fair measure of success. But the dawn of the present century has synchronised with the opening of new avenues in social work as a scientific means of solving social problems. The content of social work has been drastically changed in order to suit modern conditions. The perfecting of its theoretical background, the defining of its various fields and the streamlining of its methods account for the new scientific spirit that permeates social work activity in the present century.

**HISTORICAL EVOLUTION :** The development of social work in India has to be studied in its historical perspective and against our socio-economic background. Time was, when life in India was simple and moved along a set pattern. But the onslaught of industrial civilisation and the increased tempo of urbanisation have set in motion an undercurrent of social changes. The disruption of the self-sufficient economy and the simple social pattern of the villages has resulted in a disequilibrium which has not yet been set right. Western patterns were introduced without the necessary foundation and consequently they remained ill-suited to our background. The result has been a great increase in the economic and social problems facing the country.

In the wake of these new problems there was also a new awakening and social consciousness has been greatly stirred over a period of time by a number of social reformers like Gokhale, Tilak, Annie Besant and Gandhiji. By their efforts, attention was focused on the socio-economic maladies of the times and in later years they were able to move the British Government into enacting legislation

#### 4 METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

in order to put an end to some of the more glaringly evil social practices like the practice of the widow burning herself on the funeral pyre of her husband. Child marriage was prohibited while widow remarriage was encouraged. The Government also gave encouragement to charitable and educational institutions. The indigenous social security schemes inherent in the systems of joint family, caste and community had been in disuse for long and had mostly become degenerate and ill-suited. Some religious organisations also tried to provide relief to those distressed by socio-economic problems. The Christian outlook of loving one's neighbour as oneself was responsible for the establishment of numerous charitable institutions. All religions have exhorted their followers to do charitable activities. India has a rich cultural heritage and a long tradition of charity. But what was provided was not more than some immediate relief and very often these measures were haphazard and uncoordinated.

**CHARITY APPROACH :** The charitable and philanthropic activities that have been universally practised in India, did meet some of the existing social needs. But their approach and methods were such that drove a wedge between the 'giver' and the 'recipient'. The usual practice was that some of the well-placed people with some spirit of service organised charitable activities, with a feeling that they were going out of their way to help their improvident and downtrodden brethren. Such an attitude created a feeling of benevolence and superiority on the part of the 'giver', and a sense of obligation and inferiority on the part of the 'recipient'. Social service was not always considered an end in itself, but often a means to an end which was moral elevation, spiritual enhancement or even self-advertisement. Such attitudes have been positively harmful. The worth and dignity of the human person was very often forgotten and the attitude of looking down upon those in difficulties had been very common. All these attitudes had to be given up and a new philosophy of life and programme of action had to be developed in order to finally eradicate socio-economic problems.

**PROFESSIONAL SOCIAL WORK :** This challenge has been taken up by professional social work, which has become a distinct profession, embodying a body of knowledge in a specific field and employing well developed skills and well-trained personnel, Professional

social work has a scientific basis and a progressive approach and instead of offering palliatives, it emphasises preventive aspects and undertakes long-term rehabilitation. This kind of social work on a professional basis is slowly but steadily getting established in India. The training of professional social workers begun in 1918 by the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, has been greatly extended. At present there are a large number of universities and other institutions in India imparting social work training in various places and at various levels. Increased training facilities reflect the general awareness of the need for such training and an appreciation of the skills acquired during such training. The attitude of looking down upon professional social workers, because they are paid for their work, is slowly dying out. Their work is not to be viewed as mercenary service. Since they are using specialised skills and work on a full-time basis, they have a right to be paid for their work just as in other professions. But in India, there is still some apprehension lurking in the minds of some voluntary workers who tend to frown upon professional social work. It is true that India's background and problems are such that require a great deal of voluntary effort. But professional social work with its emphasis on social rehabilitation has to be fully developed and it should set the standard for social work activities in the voluntary sector as well.

**NEED FOR ADAPTATIONS :** The form in which professional social work is known to us, was developed mainly in Western countries in answer to the peculiar problems and particular conditions of those countries. Of course, their basic assumptions, underlying philosophy and approach to problems appeal to all people and apply to all countries. But their specific application in any country has to take into account the particular socio-economic background and peculiar cultural patterns of that country. In countries which are technologically and economically backward such as India, conditions are so different that we cannot simply copy those techniques and methods that have been evolved in highly industrialised and technologically advanced countries of the West. We have to evolve a suitable theoretical background and practical framework. The general principles are universally applicable, but the techniques themselves have to be suitably adapted in order to suit our background. The contents or boundaries of professional social work

## 6 METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

should not be set for all times and for all countries. We have to have our own brand of professional social work, maintaining very high standards but evolved in such a way as to meet the needs of our people and suit the genius of our nation. Techniques like community organisation may be more applicable to an under-developed country like India, and both case work and group work may have to be practised in a slightly different manner. This is a great task and a major responsibility for all those functioning in the field of professional social work in India.

**SOCIAL REHABILITATION :** The objective of professional social work is social rehabilitation. Individuals or groups beset with problems while functioning in society have to be helped to consolidate their position and function in a useful and acceptable manner. Though the present social set-up is defective in some of its details, the aim is to rehabilitate the individuals within its broad framework. At the same time, attempts are made to remedy the defects in the present social set-up, not by demolishing the whole social fabric but by slowly creating conditions which will enable the necessary changes in the social frame work.

Individual rehabilitation and social assimilation of individuals and groups involved in difficulties is the core of professional social work. The example of beggars gives us a classical instance of how mere philanthropic activity has failed to achieve tangible results. People thought that all that they had to do was to distribute alms, not knowing that they were only perpetuating the problem. The person was viewed only as a beggar, not as a human being turned beggar. They never bothered to ask the crucial question, why this beggar? They took it for granted that beggary was the result of personal failure or God's punishment, not realising that perhaps it was because he has been put in an environment in which he was obliged to beg in order to live. The problem has to be traced to its very roots. We may for the time being give charity, but the work of rehabilitation starts after such immediate relief has been given. We have to work on the beggar's personal and social background and transform his environment in such a way that he need no longer beg in order to earn a living. Every beggar becomes one due to certain factors and if those factors are favourably changed, he will cease to be a beggar and live honourably like any other citizen. This is no easy job and requires trained



workers and sustained efforts. It is one in which long-term objectives must be kept in mind even while attending to the immediate needs of the person.

**NEED FOR TRAINING :** The emergence of professional social work in India has helped in drawing up a planned and integrated programme for social welfare. It is easily admitted that good will and spirit of service will enable a person to help others in distress. But in order that he may be effective he has to be given sufficient training for the type of work he is going to do. Handling human beings and their problems is no easy matter and in order to understand human behaviour, one should have sufficient knowledge of psychology and other allied social sciences. One has to develop a certain attitude to people in relation to their problems. For this kind of work one has to be specially equipped and thoroughly prepared. Voluntary workers also have begun to appreciate the value of training and they have started organising orientation courses for their workers. There is a misconception that Gandhian approach has been a negation of professional social work. But the fact is that even though Gandhiji relied more on spirit of service and voluntary participation, he was the first to realise the need for thorough training and organised activities which are essential features of professional social work. More recently the social problems have greatly multiplied and become more complicated in nature. In order to handle these complex and difficult social problems, well-trained and full-time social workers are needed. They should be equipped with techniques to handle personal, group and community problems in the various fields of social work. This kind of preventive and constructive social work, represents the aspirations of humanity rising to consciousness of its degradation even amidst progress, and of failure even amidst success. Professional social work has thus a great mission. It is not an easy one. But it is one that will shape the destiny of future generations.

## CHAPTER II

### SOCIAL CASE WORK

**Social case work**, as one of the techniques of professional social work, aims to find individual solutions to an individual's problems, the focus being on the individual. People are often beset with difficulties arising out of personal or environmental factors, leading to their malfunctioning and consequent maladjustment in society. Where the individual fails to work out the necessary social adjustments and function in a useful and acceptable manner, the social case worker helps him to balance himself and to straighten out his difficulties. As social group work and community organisation take place at the group and community level respectively, the social case worker functions at the individual level.

**DEFINITION :** Even though the ingredients of the theory and practice of social case work has been well codified and accepted fairly universally, a definition of social case work which can command universal acceptance, has yet to be evolved. But the various definitions that have been advanced, bring out its salient features; that it is an art of helping individuals to work out better social relationship and adjustment; that it is a method of helping people individual by individual, to tackle effectively the various problems confronting them and that it is a way of helping individuals to use their own resources, both material and psychological, for the treatment and prevention of social problems. All these definitions seem to describe social case work correctly but incompletely. They have all touched upon the essential features of social case work; the only difficulty is correct and apt terminology. The absence of a universally acceptable definition is not such a weakness, because we are sure of its essentials.

**BASIC ASSUMPTIONS :** Basic to the theory and practice of social

case work is the belief that human problems are the result of personal and environmental factors which often react upon each other. The personal factors or the ingredients of personality and external factors or environmental conditions in the economic, social or emotional plane, are in constant interaction. A person is involved in a problem, when due to these internal or external factors, he is not able to hold on in this fast moving life, resulting in functional breakdown. That the environmental factors are responsible for a large number of personal problems is easily admitted. But it is a fact that a person's constitutional components, exert even greater pull and give direction to individual problems. This is proved by the fact that people belonging to the same social or economic background, do not meet with the same kind of problems. And yet, no personal problem can be scientifically approached except against the person's total socio-economic background. Social case work recognises the importance of both internal and external factors and proceeds to give psychological understanding and help to set right personality difficulties and offer concrete and material help, to lessen the weight of environmental pressures.

A person's malfunctioning in society and the resultant mal-adjustment is what calls for case work service. Perfect adjustment with an individual's social and personal environment is scarcely possible and a temporary dislocation can usually be corrected by the person himself. But once such malfunctioning has become serious in nature and the person on his own, fails to surmount this difficulty, case work services are required and such persons are the 'cases' or 'clients' of social case workers. Though individuals are the main concern of the social case workers, individuals are not approached or treated as if they are living in vacuums, but living as they do, in intimate relationship with others in a well-defined social frame work. The individual and his problem is given an individual attention, but he is not viewed as an isolated person. He is approached, studied and helped against his whole background, both personal and environmental, and his problem is studied in all its uniqueness and completeness. With such a complete picture of the client in mind, the social case worker is able to assist him with psychological or material help.

**DEMOCRATIC PROCESS :** Social case work and other social work skills are based on democratic values and methods. An individual

## 10 METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

is treated with respect, for the mere fact of his individuality. Even when he is involved in a problem, his right of self-direction and self-determination is not forfeited by the social case worker who tries to avoid imposing his own thinking or plans on the client. The client is allowed to face his problems himself, with the social case worker merely assisting him in his work. He does not face or solve problems on his client's behalf, but helps the client to face them more effectively.

**SELF-DETERMINATION :** It is granted that an individual is by far the best judge as to what is best for him. Even though he can make a mistake about what is good for him, he should still be free to err and correct himself, rather than lose his freedom of action. If a change has to be brought about in the attitude of the client, it has to come from within the client. The social case worker is trying to help the client change himself and assist him in working towards a solution of his problems. The social case worker does not scold or preach, but counsels him. But ultimately the decision as to which way to move rests with the client who has to take the decision because such a decision only will be effective. Hence, the best participant in the work of solving the problems, is the client himself. The social case worker helps the client to pool together his own energy and mobilise his own psychological and material resources, supplemented by community resources, if available, in order to solve the problems, by making the necessary personal and environmental adjustments. The task of the social case worker as a 'counsellor' is to arouse the feelings of the client towards facing the problem by accepting changes in himself or effecting changes in the environment. To put the client in touch with the community resources, and to obtain concrete material assistance for the client, are some of the useful functions performed by the worker. But he does not get tied up with merely providing such services, but as 'therapist' he is involved mainly in the work of using relationship as developed in the process of interviewing with the object of helping the client to solve his problems.

**PROFESSIONAL RELATIONSHIP :** Case work process is based on positive and purposeful relationship between the worker and the client. Such a relationship is a pre-requisite for helpful and successful interviewing process. The professional relationship in social case

work, unlike friendly relationship or casual acquaintance, is established with one and only one object in view viz., to render the kind of services asked for by the client. The relationship is terminated after it has served its purpose. Hence it is a disciplined and controlled relationship, always keeping the end in view, namely to help the client resolve his difficulties. The first task in case work is to establish such a positive and responsive relationship between the worker and the client. In professional terminology, such a relationship is referred to as *rapport*. Unless *rapport* is established, case work process will be impossible and ineffective. Such a relationship has to be fostered and developed. The case worker's first move should be to win the confidence of the client. This is not possible unless the case worker evinces warm feelings and is able to get at and touch upon the feeling tones of the client and share his feelings, hopes and fears. Where the client has asked for some simple material relief, the factor of relationship may not be so important, but in case of more complicated psycho-social problems, this kind of positive relationship is of paramount importance. The client cannot be expected to give out his inner feelings of anxiety, fear, insecurity etc. unless he feels secure and accepted and without knowing his inner feelings, effective help cannot be rendered. In professional relationship, the worker always keeps in mind an objective picture of the client and his problems and his attitude should not be coloured by subjective considerations either about the client or his problems.

**ACCEPTANCE :** Professional relationship in case work situation is built around worker's complete and unreserved acceptance of the client, with all his problems, strengths and weaknesses. Whatever be the background of the person, or however unacceptable his conduct, the social case worker should accept him. There should not be any reservations in the mind of the case worker, in his acceptance of the client. Acceptance of the client does not mean approval of all that he has done, especially if he has violated the norms of the society and upset the accepted scheme of values. It means that one may disapprove of the act, but still accepts the person. If a change of the mind and heart is to be there in the client, that change has to come from within him, and the social case worker, by accepting him as he is, is only assisting him to have a better look at himself in this atmosphere of acceptance. Even

## 12 METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

when the client's behaviour had been objectionable and unacceptable, the case worker knows that outright disapproval or forthright admonition rubs the client on the wrong side and narrows down the chances of getting his co-operation and participation. Hence, the social case worker accepts the client as he is and by gradually working on the areas of strength in him, helps him to accept and overcome his own weaknesses.

**CONFIDENTIALITY :** The professional nature of case work imposes a number of restrictions and responsibilities on the social case worker. His first responsibility is to the client who should be treated with respect and understanding. Interviews must be fixed by previous appointment and appointments, once made, must be kept. If there is any change, the client must be consulted. The case worker should not give vague assurances or false hopes and the confidences of the client are never to be divulged. All that transpires between a social case worker and the client must bear the stamp of confidentiality. Utmost secrecy has to be observed in regard to all the information given by the client. The worker tries to get information about intimate and personal matters only for the sake of understanding his problem completely and because all that has happened to the client in the past, has got a bearing on his present problem and may indicate possible lines of treatment. In order to help the client give all the relevant information, the case worker must assist him by giving psychological support and positive signs of his genuine interest in and complete acceptance of the client. Listening to the client patiently and asking questions in a responsive way to clarify things, is essential. Apart from being a good listener and a good conversationalist the social case worker has to be a good observer, trying to sense the undercurrent of emotional difficulties of the client, as indicated by pauses in conversation, inability to give a coherent story, becoming nervous or fidgety etc. These signs have to be looked for, because they give an indication to the worker as to the depth of the feelings of the person in relation to his problem.

**SELF-HELP :** Basic to the case work approach is the faith in the ultimate resourcefulness and ability of individuals to solve their own problems. What is often needed is a certain amount of assistance. Hence, social case work emphasises self-help as the sovereign

remedy for social or personal problems. The social case worker is functioning as a helper, one who assists the client to solve his problems. Only when the client actively participates in the work of solving his problems, it will be successful. The social case worker initiates and maintains the helping process, but the client is the more active participant, trying to achieve with the help of the worker, the objects or goals he has set before him. If one person goes on helping another, it creates feelings of incompetency, inferiority and dependency on the part of the recipient. In social case work no room is given for such feelings because the client is not spoon-fed by the social case worker, but is only assisted in finding solutions for his problems, a work which is his own, but in which he is helped by the social case worker.

**PERSON :** In case work it is necessary to know more about human motives that may set different people work in different directions. Any person no doubt bears resemblances to some other people and certain general behaviour tendencies may be attributed to certain groups. But finally no person is like any other person and it is his individuality or his uniqueness which he consciously or unconsciously brings into his problem situation. He is a dynamic unit living in a dynamic world and the problem he has at present is very much the result of his past, in terms of personal, psychological and social experiences. The ability and strength he has in himself is also very much the product of his past, while the way in which he is going to function in future or work out solutions to his problems in future, depends so much on his present. It is in this way that the person's past, present and future are all interwoven into the nature of the problem which is many-sided and multi-dimensional in the sense that the past leads on to the present and the present projects itself into the future. It is this multi-dimensional view of the person and his problems that enables a fuller understanding of the person. This alone can lead to effective helping process.

**MEANING OF BEHAVIOUR :** What is most significant for the case worker is the understanding that human behaviour is always meaningful and purposeful. What may seem casual or insignificant to the onlookers may have very real meaning for the client. By any kind of behaviour a person is trying to satisfy his rational needs or irrational urges. He is attempting in his own way to solve some

problem as he sees it. Or he is struggling to gain satisfaction and avoid unpleasantness and this may be conscious or unconscious on his part. Hence in trying to help the client in solving his problem it is necessary to understand the structure of his personality and more specially if the causes of the problems are linked with his personality make-up which determines his behaviour patterns.

**STRUCTURE OF PERSONALITY:** Many studies have been conducted about the structure of personality but the analysis given by Freud is generally accepted as the basis for the general understanding of the functioning of personality and the dynamics of human behaviour. According to him, the balance or imbalance experienced by one in his personal or social functioning is the cumulative result of the balance or the absence of it between the three distinct drives within the personality which Freud called the 'id', 'ego' and 'super-ego'.

According to him the 'id' represents the basic human drives which crave for satisfaction, for example, hunger for food, sex etc. The 'id' provides the purpose and push in getting psychological satisfaction and meeting biological needs etc. When these cravings are satisfied there is release of tension but if they are frustrated the tension will increase. The expression of these drives is not acceptable to the society except when the same is expressed in a manner which is approved by the society.

The 'super-ego' is what in common parlance is referred to as the 'voice of conscience'. It is the signalling station which gives the green signal or the red one when one drives along to satisfy his basic urges and drives. This traffic constable at the cross-roads of life, counsels 'go slow' or orders a 'halt' or directs diversion of the route along other channels towards desirable ends. The prohibition and encouragement given by 'super-ego' in individual actions generally develop into a scheme of values and distinct traits of behaviour with each person. It is the 'super-ego' that filters the primitive and animal drives in us and endeavours to put the stamp of sophistication and socialisation. This is the process in which we consciously or unconsciously absorb the society's norms as indicated by criticism, approval or rejection.

The 'ego' is the 'I' part of the personality which, so to say, weighs and balances the urges of the 'id' and the instructions of the 'super-ego' and finds out as to which among the urges of



'id' pass the scrutiny of the 'super-ego' and if and how these urges will have to be modified in the light of the sanctions of the 'super ego'. The 'ego' has to finally decide on what is desirable and possible and how should he function in the given situation. The 'ego's' work is a delicate and mediating type but the final responsibility for the action must necessarily rest with it. It is the balance achieved between these different urges and the harmonious functioning of these that leads to balance in a person's socio-personal functioning, the absence of which will lead to malfunctioning of the person in the society.

**DEFENCES :** What are called defences are resorted to by the 'ego' for defending itself. When the 'id' urges one to do something which is wrong or not acceptable according to the scheme of values to which by long association one also subscribes, the 'super-ego' says "No, you are not supposed to do this", "you know it is wrong". If the 'ego' decides to take counsel from the 'super-ego' and decides not to do it, the 'id' is frustrated. Then the 'ego' will use the sense of self-esteem and moral satisfaction gained in not doing it to boost up one's feelings. It will use the satisfaction or the feeling of doing the right thing, in order to compensate for the satisfaction lost in having refused to follow the urges of 'id' by saying for example "I have my dignity to be maintained", "I cannot stoop to do such a sneaky thing". But on the other hand if the voice of 'super-ego' is submerged in the noisy urge of the 'id' and if he goes ahead urged on by the 'id' impulse, he has to offer at least a semblance of justification for his action. In this situation, 'ego' will protect itself by resorting to defences or rationalisations, as revealed by exclamations such as "What else could I do", "They say, everybody does it" etc. These are used to wash away the sense of guilt and the mortification which the 'super-ego' imposes for going against its directions. The 'super-ego' inflicts punishments or awards rewards for either going against its dictates or for following the same.

The problem of functioning in a personally satisfactory and socially acceptable manner depends so much upon the proper and balanced functioning of 'id', 'ego' and 'super-ego'. Hence the understanding of the ingredients of personality structure alone will help the case worker to gauge the full meaning of the reactions, and behaviour of the client, on the basis of which alone can the client be helped to function better and effectively.

**PROBLEM :** The changing content of the problem and the shifting nature of the reactions of the client to the various facts of the problem, make the process of study itself highly fluid. The problem which the client has is not a static entity but a dynamic one which changes in accordance with changes in the individual or his environment. The strengths and weaknesses of the client and his hopes and fears in relation to the problem are not anything set or definite but will have their own trends of ebb and flow. Hence the study also must necessarily have a changing content, varying approaches and shifting emphasis so as to get at the constants in the fast moving problem-situation in which the client is involved. In the drama of human life and the melodrama of human problems everything changes every now and then. Case worker must be extremely skilful in order to have a close-up study of the person and the problem, which would indicate whether the problem is the result of personal failings, environmental pressures or both of these in their interaction to each other.

**SOURCES OF INFORMATION :** In getting the desired information on the above lines, it is now generally agreed that the client must be considered the first and the best person to give it. This approach alone will give greater sense of security to the client and increase his confidence in the case worker. Earlier, perhaps far too much reliance was placed on sources of information other than the client, on the questionable assumption that these sources are likely to be more objective while the client may tend to be subjective. Even though this seems plausible, it was naturally wrong to think that other people would know more about the client's problem than the client himself. May be those people might know more about the external symptoms or manifestations of the problem, but only, as they view the problem. In the final analysis the problem can be solved only by the utilisation of the client's internal and external resources. His feelings about the problem, as he sees it, is most important because he alone can solve his problem, of course, assisted by the case worker. It is possible that the client may not be very communicative and may present distorted pictures but still it is the client alone who has the problem, has feelings and reactions regarding the same while others are merely onlookers. Hence the client must be the primary source of information.

But at the same time in case of clients afflicted by serious types

of mental or functional difficulties, it may be necessary to obtain supplementary information or to verify facts. Hence sources other than the client may have to be contacted, but such sources of information must be considered secondary ones. In situations in which other people are also involved, it will be necessary to contact family members, agency personnel or to look into official records. But the most important thing is that the client should not get the impression that the case worker is giving other people a chance of spying on him and that he is listening to people who according to the client are out to wreck him all the while. These feelings may have no basis or justification but all the same they are very real to the client. The need to have collateral contacts for clarifying issues or obtaining information may arise frequently. But the difficulties and misgivings the client may have in this respect can be minimised by making him participate as far as practicable, in selecting the sources of information and by creating in him the trust that whatever information is obtained in this manner is to be kept strictly confidential and that it is to be used for him and not against him.

**IMPORTANT STEPS :** Study, diagnosis and treatment are the various steps taken to resolve the problems, of physical nature as in the medical profession or of a psychological nature as may be in a social case work situation. For a doctor it may be easier to keep this order or sequence viz. study, diagnosis and treatment. But in social case work, they are in a fluid state and even though these steps are distinct, they are not clearly marked off. A case worker's diagnosis, for example, is subject to constant revision, in the light of new factors brought to light and the treatment process also will have to be readjusted.

The study of the case means acquiring the facts about the situation. The social case worker is from the beginning involved in a fact-finding mission, trying to collect factual material and relevant information. He studies in detail the nature and extent of the problem and its social and personal implications. From a close-up study of the problem, the social case worker tries to find out whether the problem is the result of personal incompetency or environmental factors. In getting the required information, the first and the best person to give it is the client himself and the secondary sources of information may be relatives, institutions etc.

**Diagnosis** is the social case worker's interpretation of the situation. It is a hypothesis that is formulated for the sake of clarity and understanding, on the basis of the facts obtained and feelings sensed. Diagnosis is the social case worker's professional opinion about the problem, indicating the lines of approach towards a solution. That the diagnosis may be revised from time to time, does not mean that it is not methodical. Only it is not static and may be revised as a result of new facts brought to light about the person or the problem. Diagnosis is a realistic, frank and scientific attempt to understand the needs of the client, using the most significant data available.

**STUDY :** The process of study must be comprehensive and include scientific scrutiny of the manifold manifestations of the problems in their intimate interaction to the client and the kind and intensity of the pressures or pulls exerted on the client by internal or external factors. This study cannot be done in a set fashion or a stereotyped manner. But still, a number of common denominators to be concentrated upon in the course of study may be kept in mind.

The objective facts of the situation and the subjective feelings of the client in their interaction to each other must be assessed and sorted out. The nature of the client's problem must be studied in all its aspects but with special reference to causation, extent and intensity, accelerating circumstances, significance to the client and the positive and negative indications in the situation itself. Alongside of this, attention is to be focused on the feelings and reactions of the client in relation to the problem, how the problem affects his socio-personal functioning, his use of internal and external resources to cope with the situation, the degree of success or failure, his ego-strength and the meaning of his behaviour pattern. In studying the above, the case worker, specially in the initial interviews, referred to as intake, offers his interpretation as to whether the nature of the problem and the kind of services asked for are within the competence of his agency to offer. The client also has to make up his mind as to whether or not to accept the services offered by the agency.

The ease with which one may have an intellectual grasp of the significant facts and feelings to be assessed in the process of study is really in inverse proportion to the difficulty in getting at these facts and feelings. Specially, in the beginning, the person is subject

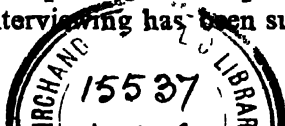
to emotions or blocked with feelings. The atmosphere is tense, vision is blurred and the client generally feels confused if not fully perplexed. Mixed or ambivalent feelings are uppermost; he is not sure of himself nor of the case worker. The very fact of being obliged to receive case work assistance and the burden of feelings he wants to unburden on someone, and somehow, is painful. Also his hopes and fears, likes and dislikes, past and present, all of which have contributed to make him what he is and make the problem what it is today, tend to make him often very defensive or unresponsive. Any tendency to feel that the above description of the situation facing many a client is exaggerated, will be dispelled if one tries to recall the feelings he might have had in approaching a stranger or unfamiliar authority to ask for some kind of help. The position is very much worse for the average client.

But the case worker has to use his skills and interviewing techniques in such a manner and in such degrees as to make the client feel secure and confident. The client must be enabled to come out with his difficulty more easily and begin to participate in partialising the problems and sorting out the ingredients of the problems so as to move on and begin using personal, agency and community resources for tackling the problems. Of course, the use of principles such as acceptance, professional relationship, emotional support, recognition of positive factors etc. will greatly help; but these principles themselves are not such as to admit of uniform or universal application in all cases. Some look at these principles and concepts as if they can be relegated into watertight compartments so that a bit of this principle, and a little more of another concept applied in quick succession will get a desired result is certainly completely wrong. This is the impression one gets when a beginning practitioner says "First I accept the client as he is, and begin where he is. Then I establish professional relationship and give him emotional support and then...." The general nature of the principle can be broadly stated but what is significant is the intelligent application of the principles in any particular situation. There cannot be any set sequence or given manner in which these principles can be applied but what is important is the total client-worker relationship established as a result of the successful use of these principles, even though it is very difficult to say how exactly each principle is to be applied concretely. To say that "it all depends on the situation" is helpful

but not very clear and only indicates the genuine difficulty in explaining how and when, in what way and to what degree these principles are to be applied in practice.

**DIAGNOSIS :** On the basis of the study of the problem in its past, present and future setting and the client's positive and negative reactions and interactions, the internal pressures and environmental factors, the case worker makes an assessment of the client-problem situation. The study would have brought out various psychological, social and environmental factors to the forefront. The case worker using his knowledge about human motivations and meaning of human behaviour and his objective appraisal of the person in relation to the problem tries to put his fingers on the fundamental needs of the client which will also indicate the manner of meeting the same. This professional opinion is the product of the disciplined functioning of the case worker seeking to gain an insight into the behaviour and inner conflicts of the client. He follows the meaning of what is said or left unsaid by the client, the way in which information is given or withheld, the feelings the client has successfully expressed or unsuccessfully tried to cover up, so as to know how best to proceed in the process of helping him. The study of a personal or social problem undertaken by the research worker ends with the study. But in case work the study is purposeful and leads on to diagnosis, which will throw light and help more towards the stage of problem-solving effort. Diagnostic interpretation links study and treatment in a continuing process and may have to be revised on the basis of fresh facts or differing reactions. The scientific and objective diagnostic process helps to focus attention on the essential nature of the problem and the clients' attempted or unsuccessful efforts to solve the problem and the ways and means still available for meeting the needs of the client.

**INTERVIEWS :** Interviews are the medium through which case work services are provided. The method of interviewing is naturally widely used in most branches of human endeavour. But in the various fields of social work it has special significance and in social case work it is the basic skill employed. The interviewing techniques have been greatly improved upon, on the basis of experience gained in the course of case work practice in the past decades. But even though the process of interviewing has been subjected to scientific



and objective scrutiny and developed into a scientific process, it fundamentally remains an art rather than a science, and a way of relating to people and dealing with their problems in a skilled manner. It is very difficult, if not nearly impossible, to set down how exactly an interview should begin, proceed and end since every human being is a unit to which any generalisation cannot be easily applied. But at the same time even though human reactions are particular and individualised, their general course may be anticipated. For example, that any sensible person will get angry if he is insulted is a generalisation that may be safely made, even though it is quite true that the manner in which or the degree to which they give vent to their anger will differ from person to person. Similarly that a person will react positively, given sufficient encouragement, is a generalisation which may be hazarded even though the reaction of each person in a given situation will naturally differ from person to person. It is this characteristic of human reactions which enables us to anticipate behaviour and proceed to develop a line on which interviews are to be generally proceeded with. At the same time it has to be kept in mind that the way in which these principles will have to be applied will depend so much upon the worker-client situation in each case.

**NON-JUDGEMENTAL ATTITUDE:** In trying to delve into the depth of human motivations and reactions, the case worker must be able to marshal all the knowledge he has about the common human reactions and the dynamics of human behaviour. He cannot afford to be intolerant or condemnatory. Since every behaviour is motivated, the case worker must try to find out the causes, meaning and significance of the client's behaviour pattern against his social and personal background. The case worker's own views and feelings, norms or values should not colour his dealings with the client. In the assessment of the behaviour of the client, moral judgement of the case worker should not come in. Even though as an individual the case worker is entitled to hold on to his convictions, he should also note that in the imperfect world in which we live even the so-called 'good' and 'bad' are also relative. In case work situations to brand a person or his behaviour as 'good' or 'bad' is not helpful because even the 'good' may only be comparatively good and even what usually goes as 'bad' may have some good points. The non-judgemental attitude of the case worker

will greatly help in concentrating more on the meaning of behaviour and the means of helping him and not at all in labelling anything or anybody as 'good', 'bad' or 'indifferent.'

**TREATMENT :** Treatment is the next step and it is based on the study and diagnosis which indicate whether the problem is the result of personal or environmental factors and whether the remedy lies in the field of material or psychological assistance. What the case worker does, after studying and understanding the problem has been variously described as treatment, helping process, rendering services etc. Each one of them may be an inadequate description, but yet all these are involved in varying degrees in the progress towards a solution. The types of services given by the social case worker can be divided into direct and indirect help.

**DIRECT AND INDIRECT HELP :** Helping the client to obtain some specific service or material assistance or working with environmental factors so as to enable the client to function better, is what is called indirect help. Here the work is called indirect, because very little is done directly with the client.

In direct treatment process, the focus is on the client and the work is directly with the person, because the root of the problem may be traced to the person himself. This kind of direct help is mainly psychological in nature, because the problem is one of defective functioning of the person. For example, a person may be having normal capacities and capabilities, but due to excessive feelings of anxiety and fear, he may not be able to function properly. In this case, work with environmental factors is not called for. But the client's reasons for anxiety have to be faced and what the case worker may be expected to do, is to create self-confidence in the client and help him use his own areas of strength, so as to function better. Indirect help, centres round providing material assistance, or putting the client in touch with agencies or institutions providing the kind of help asked for by the client. But direct help is in the form of psychological support and help for the client.

**EVALUATION AND RECORDING :** Once the treatment process has been initiated, it is necessary for the social case worker to constantly evaluate the participation and progress of the client in the treatment process. Evaluation refers to the judicious observation,



of the social case worker, as to how the client is reacting to the treatment process and how he is functioning in relation to his problem. Evaluation of the client helps the social case worker to proceed at the pace of the client and render the kind of assistance, in such way and in such degrees, that can be understood and accepted by the client.

In case work practice, recording all the relevant data connected with the client: including the worker's interpretation of the data and the progress of the interviewing process, is of great importance. All that transpires between the social case worker and the client has to be carefully recorded. It helps the social case worker to clarify issues, making diagnosis and treatment easier. Since social case work is carried on under the supervision of more experienced social case workers, records maintained by the social case worker is the basis for useful discussion. It is only with the help of records, that proper evaluation of the client's functioning in respect of the problem, can be made. These various steps enable the social case worker to proceed in an orderly and systematic manner, in the task of assisting the client, by helping him use his own and the community's resources. Hence the social case worker must be aware of the community from which the clients come and the services rendered by various agencies in the area, to which the clients may have to be introduced for the sake of obtaining any specific assistance.

**LIMITATIONS :** Case work help is provided usually in an agency setting. In places where case work services are universally provided, the usual pattern is that various social welfare agencies engage professional case workers who render case work services, in keeping with or in support of the programmes of the agency. In India, professional social work is still in its infancy and we have only a limited number of agencies providing case work help. Agencies are often handicapped by lack of finances and cannot afford to engage paid case workers. But with all these limitations, an increasing number of case workers are being employed in correctional institutions where they do case work with delinquents and in the hospitals where they work with patients enabling them to accept treatment and speed up recovery. In prisons they help the convicts to adjust to prison life and help them make up their mind to avoid crimes when they are released and help them to start

living in a socially acceptable manner. These are just a few areas, where case workers are doing signal service. Some times it is said that case work takes time, as it proceeds slowly and individual by individual. But still it often gives permanent solutions to personal problems. Living as we do in a world, with its increased tempo of urbanisation and modernisation, with the intensity of personal competition and the complexity of modern life, more and more individuals are losing their ground, leading to malfunctioning of the persons and often it is case work services that are required by them. Side by side with the development of professional social work, social case work also is developing in India.

## CHAPTER III

### SOCIAL GROUP WORK

Man is essentially a social being and he lives and functions in intimate relationship with others. Individuals do not live in vacuums or function in isolation but their life is a continuous process in which there is a great deal of inter-dependence and inter-relatedness. This conscious or unconscious participation in social life leads us on to certain ideals to be lived up to in life. Group work as one of the techniques in social work aims to initiate individuals into a group experience which will equip them for useful and satisfying social life.

**OBJECTS :** Social group work aims to give its members a democratic experience which they will relish and cherish and which will make them democratic in outlook. It aims to instil in them an appreciation for democratic values and provides a training ground for democratic life. Group work as a democratic process has an educative and liberalising effect on the participants. That is the greatest value of social group work. It is a service not merely to individuals but to democracy itself. Democracy at large can be successful only if the people are democratic at heart. The democratic life which the members experience in a group work situation, will stand them in good stead in future. Especially when we look to the future of our infant democracy, it becomes all the more imperative that we should give the rising generation of our children and youth group work experience, which is as it were, a nursery for future democrats. In group work, the members imbibe democratic and social values and get experience in conducting themselves in a democratic manner. What they learn in this group situation will remain implanted in their minds even after they have moved out into larger groups and bigger communities. They will be able to carry over their group experiences to the life outside.

**SOCIAL ADJUSTMENTS :** Social life entails social adjustments. It is mainly a question of getting along with other people, an ability to relate to others in a positive and constructive way. To some people this comes very naturally; for others it may have to be fostered and developed. There are certain qualities either inborn in us or acquired by us which enable us to function smoothly in society. Social group work situation provides a forum for the establishment of social relationship and for the development of social habits, which lead to social adjustments. Mutual 'give and take' policy enables them to work out a mutually satisfying social relationship.

**POSITIVE RELATIONSHIP :** If early experiences of a person have been mostly negative in nature, he is likely to develop a negative attitude and he will always be experiencing difficulties in relating positively to other people. Whereas if a person had mostly positive experiences with others, he tends to have a positive outlook and constructive approach. Social group work aims to give such a positive and satisfying experience to people as individuals and as members of a group. They will be able to carry over this positive outlook to their day-to-day functioning. It will be easier for them to relate to other people in a positive and constructive manner. Participation in group activities leads to their personal satisfaction and social advancement. The opportunities they have for organised effort, democratic and social adjustments enable them to equip themselves for a democratic and useful life outside.

**CONTROLLED ENVIRONMENT :** The object of social group work is to provide a controlled environment and provide opportunities for growth and development to the members, so as to enable them to participate freely and function better in group situations. Any kind of social work involves group activity but social group work, as a specialised technique seeks to provide a group setting, in place of long standing institutions like joint family, which in India used to provide a healthy group life experience so essential for the development of an integrated personality. Group work activity provides a kind of experience which has a salutary effect on individuals.

**DEFINITION :** Social group work has been defined variously but

it is best put in the words of H. Trecker who calls it a method of working with people in group, in an orderly, systematic and planned way. The goal towards which the activities are directed is democratic in content and the process of achieving these objectives is also democratic.

Since group work is organised with the group as a unit, the first thing to be done is planned group formation. The group should not be too small as it gives only a limited group experience and should not be too large as to make it unwieldy. It should not be a mere assortment of individuals but should be more or less homogeneous so that the members belong to the same age group or have an identity of interests.

**NEED FOR SATISFACTORY GROUP LIFE :** The nature of human needs is as diverse and individualised as the human beings themselves. It is possible to talk about the common human needs but even then there may not be any similarity between the manner in which two people try to meet the same need. Sometimes there is too much talk about meeting the material needs, to the extent of exaggeration, as if these alone mattered and as if everybody will be happy if the minimum of material needs are satisfied. What is significant to note is that apart from the material needs, there are also many more social and psychological needs that are to be satisfied. Even with the individualistic approach developed by more and more people, it is accepted that satisfying group life and the human needs met in the course of participation in group life are of paramount importance.

In the modern society and specially in urban communities more and more people have the strange feeling of being lonely even in a crowd and seem to be a kind of island in the vast ocean of humanity around. The reason is that in the cities there are people and people but not many that really care for anybody else.

This is a frustrating experience to many and what such people need is the bond of relationship, the pleasure of association, a sense of belonging, derived, of course in different degrees, in the course of group activities. In a way, the sense of being 'somebody' is merely the result of other people also thinking in like manner and a person's own self esteem is just a reflection of other people's opinion about him. Hence it is in the group that a person may find himself, recognise himself, develop himself, utilise and enlarge his

capabilities and be rewarded by the recognition given by the group. A person has to fulfil his role in society and it is functioning in group that helps him live up to his own and other people's opinion of himself.

**FEELING OF LONELINESS :** Feeling of loneliness can be terrific in its consequences on the individuals. What the newly recruited factory worker in the city coming from village feels is indicative of the feelings of others as well even those in higher positions. In the village whatever his economic or social position he was known there and he could not walk a few yards without some body recognising him and talking to him. But now the roads are full of fast moving vehicles and the pavements overflowing with humanity. But he is lonely. The feeling of neighbourliness in urban areas is understood as the absence of neighbourliness. One may live next door to some one for years without knowing him. It is these conditions that thwart the development of individuals and all these different categories of people, belonging to different age groups, will all benefit as a result of group programmes suitable to each group.

The healthy growth and development of children into mature persons, able to relate to others is greatly frustrated due to the restricted group life available at home. The joint family system in India, whatever be its economic or other disadvantages, had innumerable social advantages. There were splendid social opportunities and to be related to several family members other than the parents. Each age group could find its companions, could get so much in terms of companionship. Everything seemed placid and smooth-flowing and it was easier to meet the social and psychological needs of the children as well as the old people. But now life is so hectic, starts with alarm clocks and proceeds with alarms from the employers or in the kitchen, moving from the frying pan to the running train : it is all a race. The children get the company of the parents only when the latter have come back after the day's ordeal when they are usually unable to be sociable. Now, the children are neglected and the old people are deserted and those in between do not know what to do with themselves. The best way, to alleviate the hardship to people arising out of these conditions, is to ensure the possibility of group life and participation in activities. This will bring people together

and bring out the best in each so that all might have the best of times. Co-operative living and helpful group functioning helps to overcome the difficulties and frustrations that invariably come to individuals, at one time or another. Co-operation cannot be learned from books but has to be imbibed from group life.

**OBJECTIVES :** The objectives set before any group will vary, and in accordance with these varying objectives, the programmes also will be varied so as to meet the needs of the individuals belonging to the group. The development of individuals in unison with group needs, and in keeping with the agency limitations, is the ultimate objective of group work. When group work activities are initiated under the aegis of any social welfare agency, it will have to be geared to the objectives of the agency itself and will have to work within the agency setting. For example, in a certified school group work is intended to help in the task of reforming and rehabilitating the delinquents, which is the objective of the agency itself. It aims to give them training for democratic participation and living.

**ROLE OF WORKER :** The success of group work depends greatly on the positive role of the group worker. Even though he is part of the group and participates in its activities, he conducts himself in such a way as to enable the group to achieve its objectives. He plays the role of a helper and an enabler. He is the cementing force, keeping the group together and giving their activities proper direction and co-ordination. He functions in the group in a planned and disciplined way, always conscious of his role as enabler and helper. He is the leader of the group, but not a dictator. He is a democratic leader who is interested not merely in taking the group through a programme for its own sake, but one who enables the members to go through the experience of group activity by themselves and for themselves. The programme is not an end in itself but it is only the means to an end, which is the development of the individuals comprising that group. He has to look to the needs of the individuals in the group as well as those of the group as a whole.

**UNDERSTANDING AND ACCEPTANCE :** The first duty of the social

group worker is to know the group. This is not confined to the beginning stages of group work activity. It is a continuing process in the sense that the social group worker should be gathering as much data regarding the social and personal background of the members, all through the group work activities. The behaviour of individuals in the group makes meaning only against their background. In fact, it is the group worker's intimate knowledge of the background of individual members, that enables him to understand the functioning of the members in the group, their actions, reactions and inter-actions.

Just as in social case work, acceptance of the members by the social group worker must be complete and unreserved. The group worker should be impartial and while giving individual attention he should guard against showing undue preference for some members. He should behave in such a way that the entire group trusts him and has complete confidence in him. Only when the group worker and the group completely accept each other, the process of group work will be effective. The group worker should remain near and dear to each member, so that each one can approach him freely with whatever difficulty he may have. The members should be free to express their feelings of anger, dejection etc. to the leader. He does not scold them for that, but tries to help them with their problem which has given rise to their feelings of anger or dejection. To be able to give vent to their feelings is itself a good thing. This kind of 'letting off the steam' will relieve them sooner than if they were obliged to contain all their feelings. The group worker continuously watches the individuals in the group and attends to their special problems. In certain cases, case work assistance is given to them if required. Thus individual attention is given even in a group situation.

**PROGRAMMES :** In group work situation, the implementation of any programme is not held out as the ultimate objective. The programme is not an end in itself, but only a means to an end. The programmes are mainly intended to provide an opportunity for activities and participation, conducive to the development of the members. What they do is not as important as how they do it. For example, take the case of a drama enacted by a group. The drama as such is not so important as the opportunity it provides to several members for self-expression and the satisfaction and



recognition they get on account of that. Some of the group activities like a drive for healthy living and hygienic habits are desirable ends. But in group work more importance is attached to how they go about this work and how it leads to individual satisfaction and development. The programmes are tools which the group worker uses to enable the group to achieve the objectives of personal and social development. The programmes should vary with different age groups. More active programmes will have to be initiated, keeping in mind the composition and interests of the group concerned.

**DEMOCRATIC MANAGEMENT :** Democratic management and organisation is the hall-mark of group work activity. The group enjoys democratic self-determination. The leader does not impose his decisions on the group but helps them to arrive at a decision in a democratic way. Both in the planning and execution of programmes, the members are free to express their views, but once the majority takes a decision, they abide by it. Responsibilities are given to the members, in keeping with their capacities. The members are given maximum of opportunities for the development of responsibility and leadership. The group worker particularly helps those members who have any special difficulty, so that in the process of group work they can get over these. The programmes may have to be constantly revised or changed in keeping with the progress of the group and their changed interests. Constant evaluation of the group and the maintenance of group records are essential in group work.

**PREVENTIVE ASPECTS :** Social group work has a preventive aspect also. It has now been accepted that social problems reflect conditions of social life. It is these social conditions that often lead to social problems. Hence it is necessary that we move out into the breeding places of these social problems and initiate preventive programmes. For example, the problem of delinquency is mostly the result of social conditions. Hence, if activities like group work are started in such areas, it gives them a socially acceptable means of self-expression. A comprehensive preventive programme on progressive lines is called for, in order to prevent the occurrence of several social problems. Group work activity should be an integral part of such a programme.

**GROUP DISCUSSIONS :** The method of open discussion of problems and plans is very important. It is in this way that clarification of issues, interpretation of objectives and co-ordination of efforts is brought about. The essence of group work as a democratic process implies that decisions, as far as possible, must be arrived at in the course of, and as a result of the fullest possible discussion and maximum possible agreement among the members.

Open and frank discussion is the best way to resolve conflicts and pave the way for better co-operation and greater determination to work together for the common good. Even though everyone would seem to accept the need for discussions, many people also will note that oftentimes, many of these discussions lead nowhere. This is inevitable if the discussions are not planned and properly directed. The art of keeping up lively group discussion in keeping with the objectives placed before the group is not an easy task. Oftentimes members may digress and go off at a tangent. The group leader has the responsibility not merely to keep up the tempo of the discussion but also to ensure that it moves in the right direction. Some members may have too much to say while others may have little to say or may be waiting for a chance. It is the duty of the group leader to restrain the first and encourage the latter, so that all members get a chance to speak and feel that they are equal partners with others in the work of framing the policies. Whenever a point is made, it must be noted and it should be made clear that matter-of-fact and to-the-point observations are preferred to long-winding statements which often leave the central problem untouched.

Discussion should rather centre round particular points and not around people who might have made these points. The discussion should lead to decisions which must be faithfully implemented. Divergence of opinion at the time of discussions is only natural. But what is important is that after the group has taken a general decision even those members who might have held different opinions, should abandon their particular standpoints and faithfully work for the implementation of the group decision which must have ascendancy over individual likes or dislikes. The group leader will have to contribute a great deal in maintaining an atmosphere of cordiality, friendship and co-operation, continuously focusing attention on the central problems to be tackled, so that wise decisions would be reached as a result of intelligent discussions.

**GROUP CONFLICTS :** Just as it is natural for people to agree to do things in a group, it is equally natural for them to disagree when it is a question of going into the details. Personal failures on the part of some members and group conflicts among some others, may hold up the work of the group. To be involved in conflicts is merely an indication as to how human the members are, but to permit these conflicts to develop or harden is most fatal. The leader should not take up sides, but should be guided by the facts of the situation, rather than personalities involved. It is necessary to tackle at the early stages these conflicts which may wreck the group work activities. The leader should settle the disputes not so much by apportioning the guilt, but rather by emphasising the greater need to work together in spite of these differences and difficulties. The effort should be to develop and broaden the areas of co-operation, narrowing down the areas of conflict.

**LEADERSHIP QUALITIES :** It is generally admitted that it is more difficult to work with people than to work for people. The latter is easier because in this, one can work the way he likes and do what he thinks is the best line of action in any given situation. But working with people involves the difficult task of getting their co-operation, and making them get along well with you. In developing group process on these lines, it will be necessary to foster and develop certain qualities of the head and heart in the leader, who should be at his best even while the group is at its worst.

It has to be admitted that there are people who may be called born-leaders, who are liked, respected and followed without any conscious effort on their part. This is so because the way they do a thing or the manner in which they say something is so natural and appealing that co-operation is forthcoming spontaneously. But to the vast majority of people, it would be necessary on their part to discipline and train themselves, making a conscious effort to develop leadership qualities, which may be latent or lying dormant. These may come out into the open only with some effort.

A genuine interest in people in general, a liking for them in spite of differences, and a friendly approach to all people are necessary in order to be successful in the art of working with people. Ordinary people are interested only in themselves and for anyone to be sufficiently interested in others is the sign of broadmindedness which is always received favourably by others. The leader should be

able to listen to other people, in fact oftentimes, do more listening than talking, and try to accommodate to the maximum extent other people's point of view. He should not stretch his own point of view to the breaking point, but should be able to stick to essentials but conceding points where no harm will result therefrom. A sense of humour is a most important asset for a leader. To laugh with people, even at one's own expense, is a great thing. To see the lighterside of things even in an ugly situation, and to be able to make appropriate and humorous comments may sometimes ease and even clear up a very tense situation. Humour can be used in such a way as to strengthen the bonds of friendship and the feeling of oneness among the members.

The leader should be gifted with a positive and optimistic outlook, determined to make the best even out of the worst situations. He should be able to share the responsibilities with others in the group and let them take the credit for achievements, himself happy to remain in the background. To be properly geared to others in the group is the most important thing because it is this positive relationship which alone can lead to positive achievements. When mutual trust and confidence is built up, both the leader and the group are able to contribute their best and make a success of the group activities.

The art of working with people is one that is assuming greater significance in modern times. The principles of group work are such that can be successfully applied not merely in the limited field of group work but also in the larger field of social welfare and even in working with other groups in the political, social, religious settings etc. Thus the principles and approach involved in group work have much wider applicability than is usually supposed. Whether one likes it or not, one finds that he is invariably working closely with other people, moving with some groups and connected with many more and what applies to the group work practice applies to the life outside. In India, greater use of the methods of group work is made in correctional and other social service institutions. But there is need not merely for group workers as such, but a still greater need for social workers who, no matter in which particular administrative or functional setting they work, will be able to make increasing use of the principles and approach of group work in their dealings with the groups of people coming to them for assistance.

## CHAPTER IV

### COMMUNITY ORGANISATION

One of the specific skills evolved as a result of the development of the theory and practice of social work, is community organisation. But compared to social case work or social group work, it is more recently developed and hence less understood. Even though it has only been recently recognised as a well defined method and a well distinguished process, several of the principles that are now incorporated in community organisation, have been known and practised. Only now, all these have been put together, as a definite method in community welfare programmes.

**COMMUNITY CONCEPT :** Even before the object of community organisation is discussed, it is necessary to define and understand the word community because as it is, it signifies different things to different people according as they interpret it. In India, communities on the basis of religion or caste may first come to the mind, whereas in other countries various racial communities may be more common. But in community organisation, the word community is not used in its racial or religious connotations. Here community refers to a group of people, inhabiting a given geographical area and having some kind of common activities or some degree of communal life, irrespective of their social, religious or racial differences. The concept of community has come to be recognised as something that is not confined to any of the various restricted fields of community life on the basis of religion, caste, race, language or profession but one that envelops the whole life of the whole community.

**DEFINITION :** Community organisation has been defined as a process initiated to bring about and maintain an adjustment between social welfare needs and social welfare resources in a given geographical

area. As a disciplined method, community organisation seeks to bring about a social climate in which it is easier to resolve group conflicts and initiate co-operative activity, for the common good of the community. Community organisation work concentrates its efforts in narrowing down the areas of conflict and enlarging the areas of co-operation. In short, the negative and destructive aspects of competition are sought to be replaced by the positive and constructive aspects of co-operation.

**OBJECT :** The object of community organisation as a method in social work activity is, in the main, one of helping the communities to recognise and realise their needs and aspirations. First, there has to be an awareness about their problems and secondly there must be willingness to work together, towards common objectives. In any area, there will be given problems and given resources both in men and materials and community organisation seeks to use the latter for the solution of the former. There is invariably a gap between what facilities a community has and what it would like to have ; in other words, between achievements and aspirations. It is the task of community organisation to narrow down and bridge this gulf between social welfare needs and social resources of a community.

**BASIC CONCEPTS :** Most of the basic concepts underlying the method of community organisation are largely the same as in the case of other methods. As most other social work methods, it is essentially a democratic method, based on the belief in the worth and dignity of every individual, and on the faith in the ability of every individual and community to grow and change—to change for the better. The community is the unit and the faith in the inherent ability of the community is the tool with which the community is helped to come out with its resources and resourcefulness, and abilities and ambitions. The community's faith in its own destiny and its ability to work for its betterment is the most important factor. But sometimes, this factor which should be the most dominant one, may be most dormant, having been submerged by successive misfortunes or discouraged by repeated failures. Community organisation puts faith in people, puts heart into the people and helps them to recognise and develop their faith in themselves and fosters co-operative activity for the attainment of

their ambitions for a new life, a better life. Faith in an individual, is an important factor; it transforms the mediocre into average, the average into superior and the superior into superb. With faith in themselves, either inherent or generated, they will strive hard and exert themselves for better result, so as to justify the faith they have in themselves and the faith reposed in them by others.

To some people this 'faith in the people' and 'democratic approach' etc. are just a few social work fads, simply an eye-wash. But a few days of work or observation of community development work will convince any one that faith in the people is not just an idealistic conception but also a practical observation. In fact, the most important concept of people's participation in community organisation work, will not make meaning unless there is faith in the ability of the people, their willingness to participate and their positive responses to constructive approaches. Community participation especially in the initial stages may not be so spontaneous except with a minority. Others may need education, enlightenment, encouragement and persuasion. Community organisation work will not be moving in the right direction unless the people are the prime movers, unless they start the movement and move with the movement. Community participation will be possible only if relationship between various individuals and groups in the community are reasonably cordial. It will be difficult to find ideal conditions anywhere, but what is needed is an ability to sink individual differences and personal animosities in view of common interests and to develop a spirit of comradeship in participating in programmes for the general good of the community.

**CERTAIN 'DO'S AND 'DONT'S :** The nature of the above concepts will also indicate the manner in which the community organiser will have to function if his work is to be successful. It is obvious that the concepts given above will be violated if he goes into the community with an attitude of "I know everything, you know nothing: so do as I tell you". On the part of the community organiser this will be the easiest way to fail in the work. But at the same time is it not true that he knows more than most of the villagers? And if he does not know more than the villager, should he be sent for this work? The important thing in this context is that he does not make a show of his superior knowledge or skills or boast about the same but uses the same in subtle ways in helping the people

by playing the role of an enabler. His superior knowledge does not make him think of others as inferiors. He does not tell the villagers point blank that all that they are doing is wrong. Without condemning them or their methods, he suggests new techniques, and encourages them to try new methods which, he assures them, will give even better results. Even when the group has acted only on one of his previous suggestions and has achieved something, he congratulates them, himself not wanting to take any credit and allowing them to enjoy a sense of accomplishing something independently. He notes the intellectual level and socio-economic background of the people and works with them at their pace and does not push or drag them. He co-ordinates the work of individuals and groups and co-operates in the work of other agencies. Even though he helps them to take wise decisions, as far as possible, he leaves the decisions to be taken by themselves. If only they have a say in the matter of policy decisions, will they be interested in implementing the same? He should be friendly enough to be confided in, familiar enough to be trusted and respectable enough to be followed. He should also be able to evaluate the progress of the work at the various stages, and the success of the people at the various levels and the degree of co-ordination and integration that has been achieved in the process of community organisation work.

**COMMUNITY ORGANISATION PROCESS:** Most of the processes which are identified in other methods of social work such as case work, group work etc. are also applicable to the method of community organisation. The only difference is that in case work and group work the focus is on the individual or the group and their needs and problems, whereas in community organisation the focus is shifted on to the community in general and their needs at large. But it has also to be remembered that individuals and groups still remain very important in the task of community organisation work because the community has no existence without individuals and groups. In a way, it may be considered a way of dealing with the general, so that in that process, the particular will be taken care of.

The important processes of study, diagnosis and treatment are involved in community organisation as well, the difference being only in the precise manner in which and background against which these are initiated. The first stage of the work is that of getting



acquainted with the community, its people and their problems, and the existing agencies, their programmes as well as limitations. The importance of this preliminary study arises out of the urgent need to understand the problems as the people see them, the attitudes they have developed over a period of time, the hopes or plans they have, the order of priority in which the problems may be taken up, the probable responses to possible lines of action, the nature of leadership available in the area and the best means of co-ordinating existing services and establishing new programmes. It is the correctness and the depth of such a study of men and matters that can enable the community organiser to correctly feel the pulse of the community and enable him to make the right moves and get the desired results. If this first step in the process goes wrong, everything else that follows also tends to go wrong.

The process of diagnosis is said to be involved when the community organiser tries to understand the real meaning and significance of all that he has seen and heard, all that he has sensed by way of feelings and opinions, and all that has come to him by way of assurances, threats, challenges etc. The main work in this period is establishing relationship, enlisting co-operation, working with the groups that have come forward, discussing within committees or groups, formally and informally, helping people to come face to face with the problem and in general getting the ball rolling in the work of defining problems and outlining the tasks ahead. The actual manner in which these tasks are undertaken will naturally vary depending upon whether the work is that of starting some new activity or of co-ordinating the work of existing agencies. The work, specially during these initial stages will demand on the part of the community organiser a great deal of initiative and interest, balance and brightness in terms of judgement, poise and tact in the matter of dealings and promise and push as far as the work is concerned. This leads on to the process of planning when committees are formed, functions are spelled out and programmes are finalised. As in other fields, planning is most essential for any purposeful and meaningful activity. Successful planning depends on the ability to force and provide for all probable situations with possible solutions. In community organisation, this planning is not just for the community but with the community. It has been found that communities are not enamoured about plans drawn up by others and simply imposed on them.

**COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT :** The concept of community development is not so difficult to understand even though it is not easy to define it in precise terms and seems easier to describe than to define. In fact, it is not at all anything new because many of the forerunners of community development programmes such as mass education, adult education, village uplift work, rural reconstruction etc. did contain elements, though not in a clear or organised manner, of what is now known as community development. A close look at the many definitions of community development will reveal the following as its most important characteristics.

Community development is essentially a movement for bettering the social, economic and cultural levels of the community by the spontaneous or stimulated interest and initiative of the people leading to their active participation. It is a total concept and signifies a complete programme which envelops every aspect of the people's problems and every kind of welfare programmes whether initiated by private or governmental agencies. What is attempted to be achieved by means of community development is not anything new, but what is new about it is the way of doing things — a new way of dealing with old problems. According to this new approach the origin, tempo and fulfilment of these programmes should be the result of people's participation. This implies a great departure from the old ways of tackling such problems and demands a still greater change in the hearts and minds of men so that there develops a positive approach and co-operative attitude on the part of the people.

Community development work will be successful only where the programmes seek to meet felt needs or urgent situations. It is very rare that spontaneous and positive responses are easily forthcoming from the community in general. Oftentimes such responses are confined to the elite, a small minority. The best way is to win them over completely by successful demonstration and education and use these as prospective agents for further spreading the message of community development. Local leaders should be taken into confidence and with a sense of accomplishment of the first tasks, they can be stimulated further and spurred on to greater activity and into more difficult tasks. The participation of the people in the making of decisions alone will keep them interested and enthusiastic in the task of implementing these decisions. Conflicts of people or of ideas should be handled with understanding

'and by narrowing down the points of difference and enlarging the points of agreement. The tempo of development work may be slow in the beginning and even after having gained momentum may slacken, at times, due to various factors. But these should not be considered a great drawback.' What needs to be done is to objectively look for the causes and remedy the defects and in general to work whole-heartedly which would inevitably lead to more wholesome results.

**USE OF SOCIAL WORK METHODS :** Community development work calls for the successful use of the various methods of social work. In fact, in underdeveloped countries such as India it may not be wrong to describe community development as The Field and community organisation as The Method as being the most significant. Community development requires community organisation as the central method with all the other methods playing a supplementary role. The community development worker has to be a multipurpose worker, a general practitioner of social work methods. He uses all the social work methods and skills in the process of community organisation work, as and when the particular need for a specific skill or method arises. For example, gathering facts and figures regarding the life and problems of the community is the first step by which felt needs are to be discovered. In this task the study of research methods and the use of case work skills will be very helpful. In dealing with the people individually or in groups the skills of case work and group work will be very useful. In co-operating with existing agencies, in streamlining administration and co-ordinating work, the theory and practice of social administration will help immensely. For initiating activities for purposes of rectifying discrepancies in existing programmes, or for starting new programmes to meet new situations and fresh needs, the method of social action will be very appropriate. But in India the one field in which work is undertaken at the national level and on a scale surpassing similar attempts in any other country in the world, is that of community development using the method of community organisation, assisted by other social work skills.

**COMMON EFFORT :** The objective of the welfare of the whole community is to be brought about by the effort of not one section or sector of the community but by the whole community rising to

consciousness about their problems and making determined efforts to solve them. This naturally calls for joint endeavours and co-operative effort, which is the core of community organisation work. It calls for organised activities and an organisational set-up which will co-ordinate activities at various levels and in different fields, for the improvement of environmental conditions. Initially both individuals and groups will have to be helped to find common objectives and common approaches to common problems. A spirit of co-operation and means of co-ordination go a long way in ensuring effective community organisation work.

**DIRECT AND INDIRECT APPROACH :** In community organisation there are two ways of approach. One method is the direct approach to the community seeking to organise various programmes and activities, with the help, co-operation and participation of the whole community. A health programme intended for and supported by the community as a whole is an example. This is direct work with the people and the best way of enlisting maximum support of the maximum number of people in that area. It brings people together, in a common programme, for their common good.

Another approach to community organisation is to achieve the objects of community organisation mainly by co-ordinating or supplementing the services provided by existing agencies in that area. This is the indirect approach to community organisation because direct work is with the agencies only. Community welfare work is viewed as the responsibility of the existing agencies. Community organisation work with and through these agencies, mainly take the form of councils or committees which act as co-ordinating agencies and advisory boards. The object of such community organisation work is to eliminate waste of time or resources, by avoiding duplication of services and inefficiency in administration. It is possible for agencies to plan together, and function in a co-ordinated manner, supplementing the services of each other. *Community Chests* that have become popular in the U.S.A. are in the nature of financial federations to which there is a common collection in an area for all social welfare activities. From this common pool, funds are allocated among the various agencies working in that area in proportion to their needs and programmes. The most recent trend is to view with disfavour, the multiplication of social welfare agencies in an area.

Federations of these agencies or if possible even amalgamations of these into a single unit, directing all the social welfare activities of the community, have been suggested. In some places such federations have already been formed. It may be a possible line of future development.

**RURAL AND URBAN SETTINGS :** Community organisation methods can be successfully applied both in rural and urban settings. In India, what little community organisation work has been attempted was confined to the urban areas, with emphasis on the needs of the lower and working classes in respect of housing, recreation, social education etc. Even though some of its principles were used for rural betterment work, it was only with the inauguration of the Community Projects that community organisation principles have been fully applied to the task of rural reconstruction and that on a national scale. Even though the underlying principles remain the same both in rural and urban settings, the methods and activities will have to be such that will appeal to the community concerned. It will be necessary to keep in mind their social and economic background, and their intellectual and cultural standards, so that no programme is initiated, which does not suit them. The nature of the problems in an overcrowded slum area may not be the same as in a village, but in both cases, the problems existing in the area have to be studied first. This on-the-spot study only will indicate the kind of programmes and activities that will suit them.

**NEW APPROACH :** Community organisation methods have been now accepted as representing the right approach to the task of community development, especially in underdeveloped countries which are mostly handicapped by lack of resources. Hence, local resources and community effort have to be made use of, for the improvement of social and economic conditions. It is community organisation principles like self-help, community participation, mobilisation of local resources both in men and materials and joint planning and execution that makes community development programme, ultimately the responsibility of the community concerned. They may be assisted by trained social workers or existing agencies, but in the final analysis, a community must be able to solve its own problems.

The first step in community organisation, is to conduct surveys

or enquiries so as to determine the commonly felt needs and problems of the community. By discussions with individuals and groups belonging to that area and social workers functioning in various agencies there, it is possible to discover community needs. The community organiser should correctly feel the pulse of the community and his move should be to proceed in line with their needs and aspirations. Unless community organisation work is based on some of the commonly felt needs of the community, it will not secure the co-operation of the community.

**PLANNED ACTIVITIES :** After having studied the nature and extent of the problems and the kind of response that is likely to be there for the various activities, it would be necessary to analyse these various needs and assign priorities because it may not be possible to tackle several problems together. It will be necessary to proceed gradually and cautiously. Planning is the most important step at this stage and in this task, representatives of various sections of the community and various welfare agencies functioning in the area, have to work together. It will be necessary to assess the resources available and the co-operation forthcoming. It is good to have various committees and councils, which will give maximum representation to various sections and groups with given responsibilities. Co-ordination of the activities of the various committees will be effected in a democratic way. The maximum co-operation of the people must be obtained from beginning to end, in the various activities. These include properly conducted surveys to discover community needs, planned activities to meet these needs, well organised publicity campaigns to ensure continued community and public support and properly constituted representative forums for discussion and co-ordination. This kind of systematic work calls for the services of trained social workers.

**VARYING PROGRAMMES :** The activities that may be introduced will naturally vary in various communities, depending upon their problems. Recreational activities, social education classes, health programmes and cultural activities are some of the commonly accepted areas in which community organisation work is initiated. Recreational and cultural activities often attract maximum co-operation and it may be better to begin with such activities which are universally accepted and then move on to other activities in which

co-operation may not be so spontaneous or universal. The success of a community organiser will depend upon his ability to get along with other people and undertake joint activities in such a way, that he becomes the key to the process of narrowing down the conflicts in the community and initiating co-operative activities. He should be able to create in the people an awareness of their problems and a determination to offer sustained efforts in order to solve them.

The lessons of community organisation work in United States, for example, are very useful to us in India. But even though these principles are universally acceptable and applicable, we should bear in mind the historic background and socio-economic conditions of India and see that the methods and programmes that we initiate are suitable to our conditions. We may have to adapt them and modify them so that they suit the genius of our nation. We should also try to revive the kind of community life and activities that we had in India in ancient days.

## CHAPTER V

### SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

**PRINCIPLES OF ADMINISTRATION :** The principles and techniques of social administration are broadly the same as in public administration, business management etc. All these types of administrative work call for a background study of several other allied subjects and disciplines and a basic understanding of human nature. Public administration is based more on authoritarian approach and the exercise of power as a means of controlling the system. But a social welfare agency is more humanitarian in its approach and purpose. Even though vested with authority, it rather prefers to administer on the basis of better understanding of personal problems and human relations with respect to agency personnel and the clients who come to the agency. The difference in approach is needed further because public administration deals mostly with people who can take care of themselves, and look after their interests. But those who come to social agencies are people who find it difficult to cope with economic, emotional or social pressures. There is an element of compulsion in public administration. If taxes are not paid, the administrative authority will compulsorily collect it. But if subscriptions or donations are not paid, a social agency administrator can have recourse only to persuasion.

Since the clients of social welfare agencies have come because of their problems, the administrative approach should not be one which will create more problems for them. Hence, social welfare administration is even more difficult and delicate than administration in general. Sound knowledge of the philosophy and principles of social work, a warm and friendly attitude towards people in general and particularly to those in difficulties and experience in dealing with different types of people alone, will enable those in the administrative set-up to fulfil their important and difficult responsibilities.

The clients should naturally be the primary concern of the



administration. Properly chalked out personnel policies and better human relations in the agency-setting is the first condition which alone will ensure that the clients get real satisfaction out of the services provided. According to some, the task of administration is to keep staff members happy and well adjusted, financial situation under control, and the community relations in good state. These are all important, but all these are not ends in themselves but only a means to the greater end in view viz. to serve well the clients for whom the agency primarily exists. The other factors are important only because they alone can guarantee the successful implementation of the agency programme for the benefit of the clients.

The process of social administration has become increasingly important due to the great increase in social welfare activities and the multiplication of social work agencies. Social work has now definitely taken the form of organised activities, mostly under the direction of social welfare agencies. Earlier, social workers used to be more concerned with the provision of services rather than with problems of administration. But now, the functions of social welfare agencies and the nature of the services provided by them have become so complex that proper administration of the agency and co-ordination of its programmes are of paramount importance. The number of social welfare agencies in India and the number of social welfare programmes sponsored by the Government and other voluntary organisations, have been on the increase. Hence, problems of administration are of great practical significance to us in India, where the field of social welfare is fast enlarging itself.

**WHAT IS ADMINISTRATION ?** : Administration of an agency is the work of achieving the objectives of that agency. Any agency has certain objects in view and exists for the sake of rendering some services. The task of administration is to implement the agency programme faithfully and efficiently. The objectives of an agency are usually stated in general terms or in the form of certain guiding principles. These are all in an abstract form and in a fluid state and it is the task of administration to give them a definite shape and work out the programmes in detail. This involves laying down procedures and policies, initiating programmes, supervising activities, keeping up contacts and maintaining records and accounts. Some of these duties are naturally entrusted to others but the ultimate responsibility rests with the administration.

**ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS :** The process of administration is related to the contents of the agency programme. All available resources have to be mobilised and all energies have to be canalised in order to effectively carry out the agency programme and maintain its tempo. The mobilisation of resources should include personal, material and psychological factors. Administrative process consists in positively employing all these factors in such a way as to achieve the objectives of the agency. The immediate goals and long-range objectives must be made clear, so as to avoid any clash due to lack of clarity. Administrative responsibilities must be clearly laid down, both in terms of day-to-day functions and long term objectives. Once the general policies are laid down, the steps taken and measures adopted by the administration must be clearly within the general framework of policy already laid down.

**AGENCY PROGRAMME :** The success of the agency programme is indicative of the success of agency administration. The programmes should not be reduced to a mere routine where it becomes lifeless and useless. The programmes should not degenerate into a mechanical provision of certain services, but should remain dynamic in nature and capable of adaptations and adjustments. The programme should not become static, where it fails to move with the moving times, and change with the changing conditions. If it is not good to have a programme which is too rigid, it is equally bad to have a programme which is too flexible and where nothing is definite. The programmes should be carefully drawn up and energetically implemented. They should be capable of reasonable modifications, if such changes are necessitated due to changes that have taken place or new factors that have come to light. Only eternal vigilance and constant watchfulness on the part of the administration in regard to personal, financial and psychological factors, can make the agency programme successful and fruitful.

**ADMINISTRATIVE AUTHORITY :** Administrative supervision and control should be efficient, but not ruthless. Authority should be exercised not in dictatorial tones or authoritarian terms, but in a friendly and co-operative way. The administration should be able to secure the willing co-operation and enthusiastic participation of all the members in the agency. Agency programme as a whole, will be successful only when all those engaged in the work of

implementing that programme, are doing their very best. Administrative authority is authority along with, rather than over, others. Positive and co-operative relationship is the hall-mark of successful administration. Broadbasing of the administrative authority does not mean that administrative decisions are to be taken or implemented in a casual or careless manner. Everybody's business is nobody's business, and responsibility, if widely diffused, will not be effective. The administrative head is the final authority and has personal responsibility for the successful administration of the agency. But this authority should not be in the nature of arbitrary personal power, but a positive and functional one, flowing from the greater experience and maturity of the administrative head.

The decisions of the authority should not reflect the whims and fancies of the administrative head, but should be based on the general thinking of the whole group. The executive head, after properly considering the various opinions advanced, should take a decision which is at once reasonable and final. Thus as far as possible, the decision should be reached in a democratic way, but once the final decision is taken, all should abide by it, and implement it faithfully. In short, administrative authority is the authority of the group over itself, delegated to the executive head, for the sake of clearly limiting the authority and responsibility of each and everyone, with the object of making the agency programme a complete success.

**GROUP PROCESS :** The administration of an agency is essentially a group process and revolves round the people who are implementing the programme at different levels and in varying degrees. An agency is not made up of bricks and mortar, but of people who as a team, work for the objectives for which the agency has engaged them. Thus the basic nature of administration as a group process will indicate that the general principles of working with groups of people are to be applied, of course, adapted to the needs and situations in the particular agency. The nature of the people working in the agency, the knowledge and skill they have, the qualities and capabilities they develop, and the approach and attitude they bring into the work situation, will determine the quality of the programme they are able to put through. The individuals in the agency have their individual and particular responsibilities, but they are not

working in isolation, but work with other people, and work for the benefit of other people who are the clients. The work done by any one is part of the whole work, and as such, the accent is on the concerted and related functioning of the individuals in the group. Healthy, helpful, and co-operative relationship alone will enable each one to contribute his very best. This cannot be secured merely by providing charts indicating the responsibilities of each, but only by the better human relations prevailing in the agency. The balancing of individual responsibilities with those of the group and these again with the responsibilities of other groups in the agency in general, is involved in the basic strategy of social administration.

**GROUP FEELING :** One of the most important factors that will lead to real team spirit in the administrative set-up is the group feeling that should prevail among all the members of the staff irrespective of their place on the administrative ladder, the pay they receive or the nature of their work. This group feeling, rather than thinking in terms of personal functions or accomplishments, is important because administration is essentially an art of working together. The individual and the functions he performs are important, but more important is the art of relating one's work with that of others and the whole group developing the real sense of working together.

Any group, specially in the beginning stages, will not know each other sufficiently as to understand or accept each other. But gradually the group will be able to develop an awareness about itself and its joint role. The administrative leader should be able to give due attention to all, but also special recognition to those who show special abilities, and make diligent use of their abilities. To the more able people, the very fact that their special qualities are recognised will be an inducement to contribute their very best in future. If any ill-will or negative feeling has been in existence, it is most dangerous to keep them like that or allow them to grow. Often a free and frank discussion will enable them to grow out of such negative reactions, provided one is able to build on the strengths of the group. The details regarding the organisational structure conducive to effective and efficient functioning of the agencies will naturally vary from agency to agency. But on the whole, it must be simple in structure, economical in set-up, with demarcation and sharing of responsibilities, with easy flow of ideas in all directions by a good

system of communication and periodic assessment of work by systematic and regular evaluation.

**ENABLING PROCESS :** The administrative head must be able to so co-ordinate the work in the agency, that the programmes run as a continuously flowing stream, in which the share put in by each individual, in combination with those tasks performed by others, develop into the total programme. He must be able to create and maintain an atmosphere and relationship conducive to co-operative endeavour, which alone can lead to successful fulfilment of the programmes for which the agency stands. The individuals and groups within the agency and outside who are associated with the running of the programme must be welded together by their experience of sharing the common tasks. The manner in which individuals and groups are getting a chance to participate in discussion, the way in which decisions are arrived at, the manner in which the members develop a sense of comradeship and dedication, and the way in which duties are distributed in such a way as not to clash or overlap with those of others, will decide whether or not the whole programme will work out in a wholesome manner. It is the dynamic leadership of the administrative head which is the most important factor. He should be able to so motivate and lead the people in the agency to higher and better levels of functioning, so that the programmes will yield maximum benefit to the maximum number of people.

**SHIFT IN EMPHASIS :** The administrative head must be able to guide successfully the agency personnel so as to decide on the relative emphasis to be laid on the respective items of work to be done on any particular day or during a given period of time, so that the really important duties are attended to first and then the less important ones. In the absence of clarity and vision in regard to the importance to be assigned to various items of work on hand, a person might spend the whole time and get lost in a mass of subsidiary functions without being able to give first thought and maximum attention to the more important functions. The administrative authority should have one eye constantly fixed on the problems of people belonging to the administration and the other eye on the numerous clients of the agency for whose sake he and his staff and the agency function. He should not be pushing or ordering people about, but

should enable the members to feel that they are moving in relative freedom but yet towards the goals set down by the agency. The communication procedures must be simplified so that there is easy flow of ideas between various individuals and groups and from top to bottom in terms of directions, and from bottom to top in terms of suggestions. It is this free flow of ideas and the sharing of experiences that will help everyone, at whatever level he is functioning, to become a full participant not in a particular section ; but in the totality of the programme. He should be able to help individuals and groups to see clearly and to appreciate properly their role in the programme and on the basis of their joint evaluation, help each member to improve his standard of performance and enhance the effectiveness of the whole programme.

**Co-ORDINATION :** The process of administration naturally covers a large variety of activities and a large number of people destined to contribute, in varying degrees, to the successful implementation of the programme. Hence, the task of co-ordinating the efforts at the individual, group and community level stands out as the most important task of the administrative head. The work of co-ordination is that of keeping together and relating the various parts of the whole programme. An individual should fulfil his individual responsibility but in intimate relationship to those others, also performing the respective parts assigned to them, so that the whole programme flows continuously without a hitch, never getting stuck up because of what any individual may or may not have done. It is mainly the art of getting from each the best he can give, and helping all to work smoothly for the success of the whole programme. Co-ordination of efforts alone can avoid wastage of time and resources, and ensure the best participation of every part of the administrative machinery, so that the whole machinery works smoothly and efficiently.

When the programmes are administered with the help of various committees for finance, programmes, personnel etc. co-ordination of the work of various committees becomes an important task. The committees or specialists have a way of being all too absorbed in their particular field, losing sight of the general situation. For example, the programme committee may insist on certain kind of activities and may not see the financial implications or difficulties involved. The administrative head must be able to

follow the deliberations and decisions of the committees, and on the basis of a realistic assessment of the practical implications, arrive at the central policy decisions, by helping each group to see the other group's point of view and the total situation. The work of co-ordination should also address itself to the task of deciding on the time limit by which different people entrusted with various tasks should be able to finish the assigned jobs, so that the whole work can be finished at the appointed time. In the work of administration everybody, from the lowest to the highest, counts. However humble a person's position, or simple his function, he is equally important. Suppose a grand programme has been chalked out, and a great amount of time and money put into the elaborate preparations in connection with it. But still absence of co-ordination and the neglect of some minor details or the failings of just one or two members, may make such a big programme, a big failure.

**PLANNING :** As a systematic and purposeful method, planning makes the most objective assessment of the resources available and the goals to be achieved, setting out limitations and laying down priorities. It replaces impulses, indecisions and anxieties with precision, realism and determination. Things are not allowed to drift or to take their own course, but are intelligently anticipated and effectively provided for. Planning in social welfare is essentially a democratic process. It is not planning for people but planning with people. Since social welfare programmes are primarily need-based, planning must necessarily proceed from the needs to the process of satisfying them. The study of needs, the ways and means of satisfying these, the financial and psychological resources that can be mobilised for meeting the needs, must all be subjected to scientific scrutiny. The way in which objectives of the agency are being achieved through the provision of programmes will largely depend upon the effectiveness of planning. The democratic content of planning will be evident, when all people in the agency or inter-agency situation have a say in the matter and when decisions are made on the basis of participation by as many people as possible. When all are participants, in varying degrees, in the process of arriving at decisions, they will be much more enthusiastic in implementing the same. The maximum use of the individual, agency and community resources, including already existing programmes or agencies, for the

furtherance of the whole programme, is called for. Careful planning must precede any purposeful activity. Planning the whole programme as it is going to be implemented requires a great deal of ability and resourcefulness in order to visualise the whole programme in anticipation and in all its details. This calls for imagination and a thorough grasp of all the administrative details and other aspects of the agency programme. The blue-prints of the programme have to be made much in advance and policy making and operation have to be worked out in detail, long before their implementation.

**HUMAN PROBLEMS :** The day-to-day problems coming up for solution before the administration, are mostly human problems. Most of these problems, often boil down to the fundamental problem viz. that of human relationship. The problems that usually arise in an agency setting, are mostly in the nature of difficulty to get along with other members in the agency, and of inability to work out proper adjustments in the work situation. These problems might look trivial but in fact a little disagreement here and some estrangement somewhere else, can be felt everywhere. The whole atmosphere may become vitiated with distrust and ill-feelings, and may at least partially, paralyse the programmes. Such situations arise where the executive head deals with others in the agency, in an inhuman and impersonal manner. He should be gentle but firm in dealing with people, and maintain a positive and friendly relationship conducive to co-operative activity. The administrative head should function not as a dictator but as a leader. The whole group should work together as a team, with a singleminded dedication, in order to achieve the objectives of the agency.

**EFFICIENT ORGANISATION :** The efficiency of social administration depends upon the proper co-ordination of work at all stages and the necessary integration of human effort in order to ensure best results. The administrative head should have complete grasp of all the multifarious activities, taking place in the various departments of the agency, in order to properly direct them. His is a key position from where he should be able to hold together the threads of administrative responsibilities that are necessarily delegated to others. He has to hold them together and move them all in one direction. This should not be by interfering too often in their work but by



laying down proper procedures for administrative check-up and control.

Selection of proper personnel is a very important responsibility. Adequately trained, properly paid and progressive staff go a long way in making the agency programmes successful. Sound financial administration and efficient office administration are essential. Maintenance of proper records and accounts is very important. Public relations also cannot be neglected. It should not be for the sake of mere publicity or for paying endless encomiums to the organisers. The real work is that of maintaining good relations with the public and that of interpreting the agency programme to the public, so that healthy co-operation may exist between the public and the agency personnel.

**IMPORTANCE OF ADMINISTRATION :** With the rapid increase in the number of both voluntary agencies and governmental organisations in the field of social welfare, administrative problems have been properly highlighted. Administration of social agencies on sound and scientific lines alone, can ensure the success of their programmes. In India, there is increasing awareness about this problem. Some of the State governments have already set up Social Welfare Departments and even separate Ministries for social welfare. The Indian Conference of Social Work, has recommended that these departments and ministries should be manned by qualified professional social workers. Some of the government spokesmen have expressed doubts whether the social workers would be able to cope with the administrative responsibilities enjoined to such posts. But it may be reiterated that social workers, by virtue of their special training in social administration, are best fitted to fill such administrative posts. Due to the special skill they have acquired, trained social workers are the best, for the proper implementation of social welfare programmes.

**COMMUNITY RELATIONS :** Since most social welfare agencies exist for meeting the individual, group or community needs of the people comprising a community, the relationship of the agencies with the clients in particular, and the community in general is very important. The administration of social work is based on relationship and the interaction between the agency and the community is an important factor which would affect the fortunes of both. The community

and the agency must be able to accept each other in order to be of help and use to each other. Such acceptance can only grow out of understanding of the problems and the position of both by each other. The agency should be able to correctly interpret the work and scope of the agency and understand fully, the problems of the community and try to meet them. There should be continuous flow of information, ideas and suggestions from the agency to the community and *vice versa*, through formal or informal channels so that relationship is not that of the giver and the recipient but that of partners. Official or non-official participation of the community members can be ensured by associating them with the work of the agency at various levels. Some agencies think of approaching the community only when hard pressed for money. This is not merely bad principle but wrong practice as well. The community must be kept in touch with the agency and fund-raising will be much easier, if the community at large, is aware of the agency and its programmes.

Importance of public relations is recognised in all fields. But in social work administration, public relations assume greater significance because the social agency has also to be more social-minded in the course of its service to the people. Publicity of the good work done by the agency will naturally pave the way for better co-operation and participation by the members of the community in the agency programme.

**PUBLICITY AND PUBLIC RELATIONS :** The nature of publicity work and public relations may be a bit confusing to some. It may be suggested that the former confines itself to the work of publicising the programmes and achievements of the agency. But the latter goes further, in the sense, that along with publicity work, it establishes and maintains personal relationship between the agency and community members, on the basis of functional participation. If the agency simply issues pamphlets and news bulletins on the work of the agency to the people in the neighbourhood, it is merely publicity work. But if the agency establishes and maintains relationship with leaders of public opinion and prominent workers in the community etc. on the basis of direct and personal contacts with them, it is public relations. This approach makes other people also participants, collaborators or admirers of these programmes. In this, the public is not just informed about the programmes as in

the publicity work, but in varying degrees, direct relationship is established so that they feel related to the agency, through personal contacts and functional responsibilities. Public relationship is a two way process in which the agency and the public relate to each other. Since many are the agencies that function for the welfare of the community, inter-related programmes must be put into action with the co-operation of the community.

**RECORDS AND REPORTS :** The maintenance of proper minutes, and the writing of good reports are very essential in administrative work. The continuous and interacting nature of the work of individuals and groups comprising the agency personnel, and the way in which various people have been contributing different ideas in the furtherance of the whole programme, and the resolving of difficulties arising in the course of administration, can be revealed only with the help of reports. The reports will help each group or department to be posted with factual information regarding the work in other departments and by other committees and use such information in streamlining its own activities. It is through reports that the administrative head is able to keep together the threads of administration, following the work of each individual or group in the course of fulfilling their respective obligations. The minutes of meetings will help the absentee members to follow the discussions and become better informed participants in the discussions that follow. The use of the process record in which the group process in administrative work is revealed will be very helpful. In case of change of the agency head, the incoming head is able to get from the reports, the much needed information about all the aspects of the agency functioning in the past, and take over the role from where it was left off by the previous person. The reports should be factual, clear and simple, and must faithfully represent the tempo of group process and the interaction between various people in the administrative set-up. In the task of evaluating the work of the departments in particular, or agency as a whole, well written and objective reports will go a long way.

**EVALUATION :** It is only scientific and continuous evaluation that can assess the quality and quantity of the services provided by an agency. An objective assessment of the past functioning alone can ensure better functioning in future. Any agency is finally to

be judged by the results, and from the administrative point of view it is evaluation that can reveal the degree of success or flexibility in the functioning of individuals and groups. The areas of divergence or degrees of discord will have to be straightened out in the interest of co-ordinated and efficient functioning in future. There is no greater teacher than past experience, and the process of evaluation can be such a valuable learning process. The past experiences are subjected to scientific and objective scrutiny so as to lead individuals and groups to greater and better accomplishments, learning from mistakes and strengthened by achievements. The past is most significant since the present is the result of the past and the moulding of a better future depends on the intelligent use we make of the past and the lessons we draw therefrom. It is not merely the quantum or material out-turn of services that have to be analysed, but also the spirit of co-operation and the feelings that go along with services. What is wanted, is not a mechanical efficiency but a proficiency in human relations accompanying the services. Even though 'what' services are provided is important, equally if not more important, is the question as to 'how' they are provided. All the aspects of administration of the agency and the programmes must be subjected to evaluation so as to help in further improving the contents of the programme.

Evaluation is the process of self-examination, which seeks to find out any discrepancy between what the administration had in mind, and what they have on record, in regard to the agency programme. In other words evaluation is the process by which actual accomplishments are compared to the anticipated results. The object is to view, most objectively, the whole programme in action with its strong and weak points. Evaluation is useful in order to spot out defects and to rectify them. Even supposing there are not such glaring defects, evaluation is still useful, because it can suggest modifications and changes which will make the programmes more successful. Subjective considerations may stand in the way of proper evaluation. This has to be avoided, because without proper planning and evaluation, it is not possible to maintain objective standards in the administration of the agency.

## CHAPTER VI

### SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH

Research has become an important pre-requisite for successful social work. It prepares the ground for effective social work, by formulating generalisations regarding social conditions and by supplying factual information regarding the nature and extent of social problems. Any kind of social work involves functioning in relation to people and their problems. In order to handle these problems and to help them, it is necessary to get a complete picture of their problems and their total socio-economic background. Social workers, by the nature of their calling, cannot afford to live in ivory towers, far removed from people and their problems. They have to move out into the company of people, and get in touch with their problems directly. This opportunity to make on-the-spot study opens the way for offering practical solutions to socio-economic problems.

**SYSTEMATIC STUDY :** Social work research is a systematic and comprehensive study of social phenomena, with a view to discover the felt needs of a community, to gather factual data regarding the nature and extent of a given problem or to evaluate the results of any social welfare programme that has been initiated. Research is both theoretical and practical. It studies social factors as they are and objectively appraises the social situation in a given area or field. Such a study has more than theoretical value. The practical aspect is that such studies bring to light the needs of the people and the ways of meeting them, and help to evaluate the success in the use of social work methods.

Social work research can help in the process of processing the techniques of social work. There is nothing static or final about these techniques, and research in respect of these techniques, can measure their effectiveness and suggest modifications or changes

which will make them more effective. These techniques will have to be applied in each country, in a way which does not run counter to that country's cultural inclinations. Social surveys are very useful in evaluating the success of any agency and for formulating positive social welfare policies and preventive programmes.

**LEVELS OF RESEARCH :** Research work can be undertaken at various levels. At one end there is what is called Random Observation of social conditions. Such observations are useful as far as they go, but they do not go far enough. They may give a broad and general picture but very rarely can the results of such studies be verified. Such surveys may suggest hypothesis which will have to be verified by further research. At the next stage is what is called Systematic Observation of social phenomena. This may give better results. But research work at its best and on scientific lines, includes various steps, which have to be taken most systematically and one after another. Proper sampling, collection of data, classification and interpretation of the data and the formulation of generalisations and conclusions, are some of the important stages in systematic research work.

Since in any kind of research, it is not possible to study the whole of a community or the whole of an area, social work research bases itself, on the study of a representative sample of the whole. In order to obtain such a representative sample for research purposes, what is called "Random Sampling Method" is usually used. It consists in arranging all the people coming under the study in a certain order, alphabetically or otherwise, and then selecting at random, say, every fifth person from that list. Hence if the whole consisted of 500 people, the sample will consist of 100 people, comprising every fifth person in the original list. This sample is subjected to systematic enquiry and study and what is observed to be true of the sample is accepted to be generally true of the whole.

**INVESTIGATION :** After a representative sample is selected, the work of investigation starts with the help of schedules, questionnaires or interview guides. The schedules contain uniform and standardised questions and following the schedule, the investigator questions the people and notes down their answers. Questionnaires contain questions of a more detailed and personal nature and these are mostly filled in by the persons concerned, and are sent back to

the investigator, with or without the name of the sender. Such anonymity may be necessary to elicit free and frank answers. But this method can be adopted only where people are sufficiently educated, so as to be able to fill in the details by themselves and are responsible enough to respond well. Interview guides are more general in form and flexible in nature. Here, the investigator carries on conversation, in order to elicit necessary information. The answers are not recorded on the spot. The Interview Guide merely guides the investigator in this questioning, so that he does not go off at a tangent or deviate from the main points of the enquiry. Direct questioning and immediate recording of answers, sometimes puts people on the defensive and they may not respond well. Interviews without such prepared schedules have got the advantage that these persons usually feel more at ease and do not feel such strain in answering questions. But the disadvantage is that the information gathered may not be very specific but general in nature. Where schedules are used, the purpose and scope of the enquiry will have to be explained and a positive relationship has to be established before the enquiry can start. The investigator should get acquainted with the people and become conversant with the field of enquiry, so as to carry on conversation easily and freely and to anticipate answers and reactions. The questioning itself has to be done in such a way as not to antagonise or offend the people, even though all their answers may not be acceptable at their face value.

**ANALYSIS :** After collection, all the significant data available have to be properly analysed and classified. The data have to be sorted out into significant groups and the frequency of certain opinions or occurrences has to be noted. Proper arrangement and classification of the data will itself point to the generalisations that are warranted by the nature of the factual data. If the investigator had started with any hypothesis, that has to be checked and verified in the light of the data available. This kind of systematic research is a specialised job requiring the mastery of specific skills acquired during a period of special training. That is why professional social workers are given training in the methods of research. The project reports or dissertations, submitted by the students of the schools of social work, give them an opportunity to try out these methods of research and give them some practical experience, in conducting social surveys of this nature.

**QUALITATIVE RESEARCH:** The mere accumulation of statistics and figures should not be the objective of research. The approach should be qualitative and not quantitative. Research in physical sciences, by the nature of their subject-matter, can get definite results and show tangible evidence. But research in social work cannot hope to reach such high standards of precision nor can their results have such exactitude as in physical sciences. They are mainly a statement of tendencies, giving the general lay out of problems or the general thinking of a community. This weakness of research in social work is due to the unpredictability of human reactions and the uncertainty of human conduct. This is a weakness which social work research suffers from, along with other social sciences. Hence, in social work research, what is found to be true of the sample studied, may not be completely and exactly true of the whole, and what is true of a community or an area at a given time may not be true of even the same community at a later time. Hence all that social work research seeks to do, is to find out the common denominators in human behaviour or the common and recurring features of social problems. These are necessarily generalisations which cannot be true of all the individual cases involved. Nor can their findings be considered true for all times and places. Social work research gives only a general indication as to the behaviour of the majority of people, in the majority of cases.

**SCIENTIFIC STANDARDS :** This weakness of social sciences in general and social work research in particular, should not be an excuse for easy generalisations or hasty conclusions in regard to social phenomena. Research has to be undertaken most systematically and scientifically. Maximum care must be taken, so as to frame uniform and standardised questions and to conduct the interviews carefully and tactfully, so as to elicit correct information. The classification and tabulation of the data and the nature of inferences drawn should conform to the general standards laid down in regard to such research. Case study method is very good, if a fairly representative section is interviewed and if the interviews are successful. Hazy notions and faulty procedures should not lower the standards of research. Jumping into hasty conclusions, without the same being supported by necessary evidence, is the greatest disservice that can be done to social work research, which, in order to be valuable, has to maintain very high standards..



## CHAPTER VII

### SOCIAL ACTION

**REFORM VS. METHODS :** Social work profession, as we understand it now, had developed through and out of the reform movements of earlier centuries, when humanitarian considerations led to organised charity. Since social reforms could not be carried out in a vacuum it was necessary to organise services, develop methods and shoulder responsibilities in helping people out of present difficulties and to prevent the recurrence of these problems in future by initiating suitable programmes. But what is now pointed out by competent authorities is that the particular methods and approaches developed in support of, and in the course of reform movement, later became a sort of “be all and end all” of social workers. They became preoccupied with the development of methods and techniques in an effort to get recognition as a profession, which led to the neglect of the aspect of social reform. It was almost like having climbed up a certain professional level by using social reform as a ladder which was later disowned and kicked away as an inconvenient adjunct. To be honest, it has to be admitted that however tragic this must have been, it was more accidental and circumstantial than deliberate. Social workers found themselves fully engaged in developing their skills and sharpening their tools so that they had little or no time for anything else. Gradually the field of social reform in which social workers were the first to function, was increasingly taken over by political luminaries, labour leaders etc. with social workers playing only a rather minor role. Social action is essentially an effort at initiating suitable changes and reforms to improve socio-economic conditions and to better the social climate, which objective is shared by the social work profession. Hence, it is easy to see that social workers have to play an important role in social action. In fact they should be the central figures who should get the

interested individuals and groups together and function as the prime movers in this primary movement for making the neighbourhood and the country at large, a better place in which to live and function.

**REFORM VS. REVOLUTION:** The essence of social reform consists in the belief that the defects in the existing social structure can be gradually eliminated by making suitable changes in the attitudes of people, giving new directions to activity and new objectives to institutions. Social reform is said to be generally inspired by conservative inclinations, holding on to the general framework of social set-up as something given, and only seeking to rectify the particular defects that have crept into the social structure by undertaking specific remedial measures. The social reformer accepts the general fabric of social structure but is concerned about its details, many of which need to be improved upon or changed drastically. In contrast to this is the attitude of the revolutionary who challenges the *status quo*. He is thoroughly disgusted with the whole social set-up, wants to smash the whole structure as it exists now, and upset the whole scheme of values on which it is built up. After pulling down the whole thing, he wants to have a new set-up, and build a new society. To some, this course may seem to be bold and effective. If one is to compare the cost, difficulty and effect of repairing and modernising an old house, with that of pulling down the old one and building on its debris a modern one, one may agree that from various angles, the latter course may be more desirable. To them, the first would be like sewing good cloth on to old rags, in which case while you repair one part, another one gives way and when you make one corner all right, another one goes all wrong. In some countries the destruction of old cities during war, has been considered a blessing in disguise on account of which they could build new cities on modern lines.

If the details of these analogies are to be pursued far enough to the social situation, the social reformer would seem to be pushed far into the background. But what is significant here is that, what is apparently true of the building is not necessarily true of the society. The old building can be pulled down and a new one built in its place, because those who smash and build are not part of the building, they are outside of it. But in case of the social structure, such total destruction of all that is there at present, and building up

of all that we need for the future is more ideal than practical, because there cannot be any vacuum between the destruction of the old and the building of a new society. We cannot set fire to the existing structure without ourselves also being involved in the fire, since we are part of that structure. If the whole thing is destroyed, none remains to build anything at all.

**SOCIAL WORK APPROACH :** Hence it is that social work principles and practice uphold the democratic social structure as providing the generally acceptable social framework within which improvements are sought to be made, rectifying specific aspects and eliminating particular defects. The acceptance by social workers of the general framework of society and the efforts made by them being confined to the correction of particular points of imbalance and areas of improper functioning has led to criticisms. They say that social workers are so very conservative, always upholding the *status quo*, without a sense of the past and the promise of the future, and without changing the present for a better future. Such criticism has very often resulted from narrow and limited interpretation being placed, for example, on the social work objective of helping the person make necessary adjustment. To some, this has meant that social workers apparently accept whatever be the circumstances and situations in which the person finds himself. After accepting these situations or conditions as given, social workers are apparently trying to make the person accept and get accustomed to these by bringing about changes within the person. Nothing could be farther from truth. The adjustments and modifications to be brought about are not one sided, confined only to the person. It applies with greater force to environmental factors, the term being used in its widest connotations, which would also call for elements of social action. The social worker helps the starving client not to get adjusted to the situation but to get food, or the unemployed to get used to it but to get suitable job. But in the case work situation manipulation or introduction of changes in the environment, seems to be there only in a limited sense, as applying to an individual and his circumstances. These individual problems may be the result of broad social situations, in which case, it is not enough to go on attending to individual cases coming up. But we have to be doing something to remove the general social situation which is the cause of the individual problems and this task brings us on to the area of

social action. If the process of working on the environment of a person to bring about a better socio-personal situation, is stretched far enough, to cover the whole neighbourhood, at the regional and national levels, mainly to improve the socio-economic condition of the people, to reduce the areas of tension and friction, and for the development of a better social climate, then, the action involved in this, can best be regarded as social action.

**SOCIAL WORK FUNCTIONS:** Social work is becoming more and more institutionalised, day by day. Larger number of agencies are being set up with proportionate increase in functional responsibilities. Provision of services and professional proficiency have gradually won ascendance in the course of the slow but steady development of social work as a profession, with its distinct philosophy of thought and action. Primary responsibility has been to provide the best possible service to an ever increasing clientele and the need to educate and train a cadre of workers competent to provide the services in the best possible manner. The focus for a long time having been on the above, the larger field of social action was left as one of inaction for most and reaction to some. But at no other period in the history of mankind has the need for social action been as pressing as it is now. Governments in most countries which had gained independence in recent years, are entering the field of social welfare, almost with a vengeance, wanting to make up for the neglect of past decades and even centuries. Government's role in relation to the function of policy-making and administration is becoming very much apparent. The background of most policy-makers and the nature of government machinery are such that the former needs much help and advice, while the latter needs so much of oiling. The members of voluntary agencies have been on the increase and even though very useful services are rendered by them, the task of bringing their services in line with professional requirements and objectives is one that is largely unattended to. It is not enough that professional social workers perform their duties within strictly professional frame-work, in given agencies or fields. But in the present context, they will also have to participate and even lead a combined offensive against the community's problems in the larger field of social welfare. The need for social action arises because of the important task of changing the attitudes of both the administrators and the people. The need is to bring about changes in the

minds and hearts of the people making the laws, and the people for whose benefit these are made. There is need to initiate suitable reform movements, in line with the needs and moods of the people, and in tune with the general objectives of social betterment and national integration.

**PARTICIPATION IN NATIONAL PROGRAMMES:** In India, for example, when mighty social revolutions are taking place in the fields of community development, workers' welfare, social education, tribal welfare etc. can the professional social workers remain isolated and be content to carry out the limited functions in a particular job situation? Can our professional loyalties side-track national objectives and programmes? The schemes of community development are trying to bring about a silent revolution in India's countryside, trying to give a new lease of richer and fuller life to the rural people. The national awakening and accelerated tempo of community development, the biggest single effort in any country of the world, is one in which every citizen, whether he be a social worker or any other functionary, has a stake. These are official programmes which are going to succeed only due to non-official support and people's participation. Especially after the introduction of the element of decentralisation into the planning and administration of many welfare projects, more and more opportunities are available for social workers to co-operate with other groups, by participating in work and in evaluation. This will give them an opportunity to bring about necessary changes in approach and attitudes of the other people, because suggestions coming from within the group will be more readily accepted than if these had come from those who were not working with them. How many professional social workers have found it possible to participate in their non-official capacity in these national programmes? Have not many of us preferred to watch these from a safe distance, watching the stream of national resurgence and regeneration pass by under the bridge on which we prefer to stay, waiting to administer case work or group work to those that could not swim along or got obstructed in the course of life.

**NEED FOR GENERAL PRACTITIONERS:** The duties of professional social workers, handful as they are in India, seem to fit them not so much as case workers or group workers *per se*, but as those who use the

skills and approach of these methods in the general practice of social work. The only technique by which the masses can be reached is the method of community organisation. The training in case work and group work methods will be so helpful, while dealing with problems at the individual and group level, in the course of community organisation work, which needs to be strengthened and improved by means of social action. It is not true to say, as some do, that case work is expensive and time absorbing and a poor country like India cannot afford it. Every case treatment is expensive. Take the case of a T. B. patient and just consider the amount of time, money and energy and skill involved in this long drawn out treatment of the case. It may be true to say that we cannot afford this expensive treatment just for the sake of one. Hence, what is problematic is not so much the expense but the greater need to cover the greatest number of people at the shortest possible time. Hence the general use of case work skills and not so much the elaborate method of case work as such, seems to be in greater need in India.

Sometimes people ask, "What is the use of teaching case work and group work to the would-be labour welfare officers". In a factory with 5000 workers, will they be able to do case work or group work? It is true that they may not be able to do case work or group work as such. Hence, without looking at these as techniques to be practised only in a profusely professional setting, these are to be developed more as a way of dealing with individuals and groups, and to be perfected as a kind of approach in respect of individuals and groups. It is true that there are 5000 workers, but all of them are not in need of coming to him for help. Whoever comes to him does so as individuals or in groups. In listening to their problems and in dealing with them, the case work and group work skills will be of very great use. This will reveal the difference between a social worker's way of dealing with people with problems, in sharp contrast to that of others. Viewed from this angle, a welfare officer will have more opportunities to use case work skills in one day, than a case worker in a whole week. In the field of social action also, the social worker will have ample opportunities to use the social work skills in generally dealing with people and their problems, and for devising suitable agencies or programmes to deal with them. These and similar thoughts, expressed more specially in this chapter, are too frank

*to go undisputed. These are ventured\* not as the last word on the subject, but rather only as the starting point for open, frank and independent thinking on these points.*

**OBJECTIVES OF SOCIAL ACTION :** The avowed objective of social action is the proper shaping and development of socio-cultural environment in which a richer and fuller life may be possible for all the citizens. This can be achieved only by working towards modifying, moderating and modernising policies and programmes on the one hand, and attitudes, approaches and outlook of people on the other. The functional aspect of social work by means of which social workers provide services, and perform functions through appropriate agencies for dealing with people's problems, at the individual, group and community level, is by far the most important aspect of social work. But it should not be an exclusive one, and as far as practicable, suitable programmes of social action, in support and extension of such services, is also required. This will help in preparing the minds of people in general, and agency personnel regarding the problems and new avenues of work. Some social work practitioners who strictly want to confine themselves to the practice of social work, and would not like to do anything by way of social action, fail to note, that even these methods which to them seem to be final and permanent, are not necessarily so. In fact, they represent only our present conception of these and are likely to change due to changing circumstances. Due to changes in the tempo, direction and acceleration of the drama of human life, changes in methods are inevitable. Even though these cannot be foreseen even with the best of imagination, the probability of the same can be foreseen even with the worst of intelligence. To think that the problems of the present, and more specially of the future, can all be tackled by social work functions as we understand them now, is clearly untenable. Living and functioning in a dynamic world our approach also should be dynamic. It is not enough for social workers to be closetted in a certain field, preoccupied with certain functions and methods. In fact, these methods themselves need to be continuously tested and tempered, interpreted and integrated, and enlarged and improved. Such opportunities are available in the field of social action, by trying to move from what is being done, to what more needs to be done, from the tried areas to the untried ones, from the familiar to the unfamiliar, and from the facts of the

present to the possibilities of the future and from the expectations of today to the achievements of tomorrow.

**NOT MERE VISIONARIES:** This does not mean that social workers should be merely a set of dreamers or visionaries. But at the same time it is good to remember that the dreams and visions of some people and certain times are the accomplished facts of present day. It is due to the dreams and visions of early reformers that we have the existing agencies and programmes. A logical corollary to this historic development is that it is only fruitful social action at the present time, that can lead to beneficial results, better agencies and fresh approaches in the future. The administration of existing agencies and programmes will reveal, in course of time, existing and increasing loopholes and also indicate the directions in which these agencies should move. This would require re-orientation and modification to be initiated in order to help them move with the moving times, and meet the changing demands made on them. The imperfections and inadequacies of the social welfare programmes as they exist now, the incongruencies and inappropriateness of approaches as it is felt in the field, and the experiences of the present and the expectations of the future call for social action as we go further and further in terms of time, and deeper and deeper in respect of problems. By participating in social action one can get to know fully, the emotional and social life of the people. In this way, it will be possible to feel the pulse of the community in relation to its present, and heart-throbs in relation to its future. Hence, social action is not to be considered as an unimportant adjunct or an unnecessary appendage, but an integral part of social work. It is not opposed to functions, but in support of the same ; not allergic to practice but for bettering the same; not unmindful of present needs but only still more conscious about the future needs.

**IMPACT OF SOCIAL CONDITIONS:** Society specially in modern times is greatly in ferment. At the individual, group and national levels and in the political, social, cultural and economic fields, forces of social changes—good, bad and indifferent ones—are violently sweeping across with a velocity not experienced so far. Social workers naturally cannot deal with all aspects of this whirlwind of changes and under-current of shifting emphasis, even though as intelligent and observing citizens, they cannot fail to gauge the



general impact of these. But social workers, while engaged in social action will do well to concentrate on such factors having a bearing on problems of social welfare administration and policy-making, the important tasks before governmental and voluntary agencies and their programmes to meet the changing demands made on them. Several of the services provided by social workers need not have been there, if the society at large and government in particular, had not failed in their duties and obligations. Hence, social workers cannot mechanically confine themselves to what is clearly within the field of social welfare, but may have also to deal with factors even outside of it, such as the economic, legal or cultural matters. For example, the problem of large-scale beggary, unemployment, juvenile delinquency etc. are largely the result of the inability of the society and the government, to create and maintain general economic and social conditions in which these problems would not have arisen. Hence, social workers will have to think not merely of social work programmes but also economic, legal, and political remedies and programmes, in support of social welfare measures for the eradication of social problems. In all matters particularly connected with social welfare it would be more easy for social workers to play an effective role, because of their training and experience in the field. But even in the other fields, with lesser authority but with greater understanding, social workers should participate and help in the determination of social policies because social welfare can be achieved only by the collaboration of the many allied fields of human endeavour.

**FUNCTIONS OF SOCIAL WORKER:** The larger field of social welfare is such and its needs and problems so varied, that they demand varied programmes and far-sighted policies so that it is not enough for social workers to remain strictly functionaries. The specialisation in professional services has led to the formation of water-tight compartments. Where the specialist is so much engrossed in his particular groove, he loses sight of everything else. This happens with other professions also, say the medical profession, where a dozen specialists may have to be called in to fully examine one person and check every part of his anatomy. Each one would only look at that part of the body he is competent to deal with. If this manner is adopted by social workers in the case of the body politic, ignoring everything outside of one's field of specialisation,

what role can they play in the preventive programmes? Can the social workers complacently wait in their respective offices, till the problems slowly but steadily develop and are serious enough to be brought before the case worker? If case after case of a particular problem arises in a particular area due to certain specific factors, is it enough for the social worker to remain in the office to render specialised services? Is it not even more urgent for him to move out into the breeding places of these problems and initiate programmes and effect changes in policies of departments or governments. When the house is on fire, is it more urgent to console the weeping tenant than to move in, and do what one can to put down the fire and prevent the neighbouring ones from being affected? The social obligations may often outweigh our individual responsibilities. Going into the field of social action may naturally affect the rhythm and routine of functioning in a specialised field. But the greater responsibilities in the larger field of social welfare must enable the social workers to see that in addition to their particular duties in a given field, they have also a general stake in what is happening in and around the community at large. They should also initiate what needs to be done for the people, by way of social action in order to improve the standards, better their conditions, raise their hopes, and achieve their aspirations.

**REACHING THE MASSES:** One difficulty is that social workers, as a result of too much emphasis on individual problems and particular situations, sometimes fail to see the totality of a social situation. In the larger field of social welfare at the national level, social policies and programmes should be such as to cover the largest possible number, at the shortest possible time. This is specially true of countries such as India where the masses of people have a mass of problems. The methods of case work and group work performed by a handful of social workers, amidst such a vast population will not be able to make themselves felt in the foreseeable future. In social situations such as this, it is the method of community organisation that is most significant. But the techniques of dealing with individuals and groups will be greatly called in, in the course of community organisation work. The case work and group work approach will help in improving and strengthening the work of community development. In drawing up and in implementing programmes of community development, those who are nearest

to the people and their problems will have a great responsibility to interpret the existing programmes and to indicate necessary changes to the policy makers and administrators. In addition to performing 'functional duties as understood and practised now, social workers must be at the head of every good cause in the field of social welfare and work for desirable social objectives.

**PROFESSIONAL INFILTRATION :** Social action can also provide an effective means of carrying the message of professional social work to the voluntary workers and other public-spirited citizens who are not very much aware of the new ways that have been developed in order to deal with many of the old problems. In India, for example, there is no point in complaining that professional social work is not well understood nor so easily accepted, if the fact is that only very little has been done by the profession to make its impact felt on the life of the nation. It is not enough for professional social workers to gather in groups, big or small, where the discussions seem to have the accent on the free and unlimited use of professional jargon, most of which is unintelligible to outsiders. It is necessary to carry the ideals, represent the objectives and present the approaches of professional social work to others. Social action will provide the best opportunity for working intimately with a cross-section of voluntary social workers, government officials and others. By the successful vindication of our methods and approaches, social objectives and programmes, we can testify to the better equipment, higher aspirations and effective ways of dealing with people with problems, which the professional social workers have developed. There is no point in saying that acceptance and recognition is not forthcoming. The only way of getting them is not to wait for them, but to work for them and win them on our merit.

Professional social workers may do well to make use of the communist tactics of infiltration. If the communists as a group are not able to influence the government, labour unions etc. they apparently cease to function as a group. On a show of leaving aside their party leanings, slowly and one by one, they try to infiltrate into these unions etc. and work for their objectives, from within. What is meant here is that professional social workers, while functioning with other groups, can work for better understanding and acceptance of their methods and

objectives. The lamp of understanding and new approach embodied in professional social work should be kept high, so that the light is shed in all directions for the benefit of all. In social action they should be able to lead the thought process and course of action. In India, in the larger field of social welfare large number of voluntary social workers are functioning. Much better result can be obtained if their spirit of service is combined with the scientific spirit of the professional workers. But some professional social workers have an attitude of indifference, verging on contempt, for voluntary workers. This is unwarranted in terms of approach, and untenable in terms of history, because if we have functioned for a few decades, the voluntary workers have done so for many centuries. If we have got trained in a few years time, they have had their schooling for decades by actual work in the respective fields. If we have learned so much from books, they have learned much more from people. In India, the field of social welfare is so vast that for a long time it would need thousands of voluntary workers and the role of voluntary and professional personnel should not be competitive but complementary.

**NO SET METHODS OR PROCEDURES:** The field of social action is naturally one where set formula, pattern of thought or code of conduct cannot be easily laid down, nor strictly followed, even if such were available. This perhaps is one reason why professional social workers prefer to remain functionaries in the known fields, rather than adventurers in a new field. But this is not a great handicap because the so-called developed techniques of the present day were also equally, if not more, undeveloped a few decades ago. Even with the limited equipment, it is imperative that we should function in this new field, in the course of which we should be able to influence legislative bodies, lead and develop public opinion in support of specific measures or general policies of the governments, which in these days of 'welfare state' are actively participating in the field of social welfare. In fact, the various ministries dealing with different aspects of social welfare, and the Central Social Welfare Board etc. are only too eager to associate non-officials in the formulation and implementation of many of their programmes.

The *modus operandi* in different cultures and various countries must naturally differ. It is very difficult to say as to which methods will be effective in social action. But what can be said in

general is that in the democratic set-up in which we live and function, only the democratic methods of education, publicity and propaganda make meaning. The methods developed by professional social workers to work with individuals, groups and communities can be very effectively used in the course of social action. The task of moving the community has to be worked out at all levels, and specially with individuals and groups. When individuals move, groups start moving and it is when groups move, that the community and the countries move forward. This movement must be facilitated by professional social workers, working with other groups, and moving towards higher objectives, and greater achievements for the people in the field of social welfare.

diu.  
Boa.  
form  
T  
r

**PART II**

**FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK**





## CHAPTER VIII

### RURAL WELFARE

India being a land of villages, the problems of the rural community are not sectional problems, but national problems affecting 87 per cent of India's population, scattered over seven lakhs of villages. The Indian villages, which in ancient days have been the scene of self-sufficing economic activity and co-operative living, have been reduced to their present miserable plight by continuous exploitation and callous expropriation.

**RURAL PROBLEMS :** The landmarks of customs and traditions which in the past had guided economic and social life have disappeared, leaving the villagers in darkness and destitution. Scattered over the length and breadth of this vast sub-continent, these villages have been the cradles of Indian culture, the keepers of the country's conscience and the guardians of India's traditions. But the decay and degeneration that set in, as a result of internal factors, have been further accentuated, due to the onslaught of industrial revolution and the impact of Western ideas and institutions. Agriculture which is both a way of life and a means of living to our people, is in such a backward state, that it is neither profitable nor promising. The agricultural situation has been going from bad to worse, due to the increased pressure of agricultural population on the limited land available, and because of the extremely unscientific and antiquated methods that are widely used in the field of agriculture. Agriculturists, who form the backbone of the country, have been pushed to the background and rural interests have been sacrificed, for the sake of urban prosperity. Because of the cut-throat competition of machine-made goods, village industries have decayed, depriving the villagers of a subsidiary, if not main source of income.

The fight against problems of illiteracy and ignorance have to be put on a war-footing. Problems of hunger and squalor, have

not yet been successfully tackled. Deadly diseases are rampant and general ill-health is universal. Hygienic life and sanitary conditions are conspicuous by their absence. Healthy social life and group participation in recreational and cultural activities are absent in most villages. The only form of entertainment known to some of them, is the group quarrels and individual fights, so common in most villages.

With the dawn of independence, hopes had been expressed that political freedom would also bring in economic betterment. But political freedom has failed to have any such results. On account of this, some people have been greatly distressed and disillusioned, while others have realised that political freedom in itself cannot solve all problems, and that it merely gives us an opportunity to work hard towards economic freedom. Indeed, a great deal of dedication and determination is necessary to handle and solve these gigantic problems confronting the rural community. The work of rural reconstruction is a stupendous task. Isolated attempts to locate these problems and tackle them individually cannot succeed, because these problems are inter-related, having been woven into the fabric of Indian social life. A comprehensive plan, covering the whole range of problems in the rural areas, is called for if the situation is to improve.

Rural problems being the result of deep-rooted causes and long-standing traditions, any attempt to solve them in a casual or careless manner, can only accentuate these maladies. The deeper causes of these socio-economic problems, must be traced, and attempts have to be made, to face these problems at the time and place of their origin. Rural re-construction work should cover all aspects of rural life and all problems of rural areas.

**AGRICULTURAL RE-CONSTRUCTION :** Since the vast majority of the people depend upon agriculture for their living, the backwardness of Indian agriculture explains their low living standards. Both per capita and per acre production are at a deplorably low level. That is the reason why, paradoxically enough, a predominantly agricultural country such as India, is still importing foodstuffs, in order to feed her people. Hence, the main battle has to be fought on the agricultural front, so as to increase agricultural production. Increased production of both food-materials and raw-materials has been accepted as the basic pre-requisite for the planned

development of the country's economy. Hence the immediate task is to increase agricultural production, both by intensive and extensive methods in agriculture. Here, the main work is that of bringing about a change in the minds of the agriculturists, so that they are prepared to abandon their out-dated methods and use modern equipments and scientific knowledge. Agricultural work, which now runs mostly on traditional and conventional patterns, has to be put on scientific basis and on modern lines.

Agricultural income being the main or only source of income to all excepting a negligible minority, the only way to raise their living standards, is to raise the returns from agriculture or other subsidiary sources. But due to the general stresses and strains to which agricultural economy in India is subject and because of the scarcity of land and paucity of resources, the chances of remarkable increase in agricultural production are rather remote. Hence there arises the question of supplementing the returns from agriculture by some other subsidiary sources of income. In olden times, the handicrafts and cottage industries, whose products were renowned the world over, had provided the main or additional source of income. This gradually disappeared due to the decay of these industries, as a result of intense competition from cheap machine-made goods. Now, attempts are being made to revive some of these ancient industries and to develop other cottage industries. This alone can relieve the problem of unemployment and under-employment prevailing in the country. Specially in the rural areas, due to the seasonal nature of agricultural operations, there is a period of enforced idleness, extending up to three or four months in a year. Cottage industries can be usefully taken up during such periods, in order to supplement the meagre income from agricultural work. Even though the technical efficiency, and economic aspects of some of these cottage industries may be questionable, the peculiar context of India's economic affairs is such as to give a prominent place to the cottage industries, in the economic system that is being gradually evolved in India, with proper balance between heavy industries and cottage industries.

✓ **EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES :** The villagers should be given opportunities to develop into good citizens, aware of not only their rights, but also their duties. Education has to be imparted at all levels and in all places. In rural areas, even where schools exist, all

children of the school-going age are not sent to schools, because of economic considerations. Some parents prefer to send them for work on farms, for tending cattle or for other work, in order to supplement the meagre family income. The Indian Constitution enjoins, that the State shall endeavour to provide free and compulsory education for all children, until they complete the age of fourteen years. But the constitutional provisions have yet to be fully implemented. The grown-up people in India, who have been denied such opportunities for education, should also be given a chance to have an educational experience, which would give them orientation and inspiration for a new and better life. This is the concept of social education, which is intended to give the adult population in rural India, an emotional and intellectual awakening. Rural education in general, and social education in particular, should be able to give an educational basis to their economic life. Both Gandhiji and Tagore had visualised a type of education, with its emphasis not on book knowledge, but on practical application of knowledge, to the life situations around and on learning by doing. Social education also must intimately touch upon all the aspects of village life, and should help in the work of streamlining village life, as a continuous and integrated process.

**CULTURAL ACTIVITIES AND RECREATION :** Village life which had once been full of life and vigour, has become monotonous and dull. Opportunities for healthy recreation and pleasant cultural activities, which used to be common in ancient days, have been fast disappearing, and modern means of recreation have not yet reached the majority of villages. Hence it is necessary to organise recreational and cultural programmes in the villages, for the villagers and by the villagers. The rural population needs such opportunities for enjoyment and self-expression. Such activities provide the best means of overcoming their fatalistic attitudes. Recreational and cultural activities are greatly needed, if village life as a whole, is to become a pleasant and satisfying experience, instead of the dull and monotonous routine of work and idleness which it is today. The minds of the villagers have to be opened by means of education, their lives made more enjoyable by means of recreation and their future made more promising by means of co-operation.

**HEALTH AND SANITATION :** The chronic state of ill-health and

malnutrition affecting the majority of the rural people, is another major problem. Ill-fed and ill-clad, they are easily susceptible to deadly diseases and once they become victims of these diseases, hopes of recovery are remote, because adequate medical facilities have not yet reached the remoter villages. The indigenous medical systems, that have been practised in India from time out of mind, have been in disuse for long due to lack of patronage. Modern medical treatment is generally very expensive and ordinary villagers cannot just go in for them. Lack of resources and dearth of doctors stand in the way of expanding medical facilities in rural areas. Government of India in collaboration with WHO and other international agencies, have launched schemes for the control of Malaria, T. B. and other diseases. A great deal of fatalism still lurks in the minds of the villagers in respect of these diseases, which are considered by them to be inevitable and uncontrollable. Such attitudes are as fatal as these diseases themselves, and the first task is to remove such attitudes and help them to go in for treatment. Unhygienic habits and insanitary living conditions are greatly responsible for the spread of diseases. The standard of both personal and environmental cleanliness is unsatisfactory. The accumulation of filth and dirt, in and around the houses is universal, and a drive for clean living, should be an important plank in any scheme of rural re-construction.

**Co-OPERATIVE ACTIVITY :** These and other problems in the villages have to be solved by co-operative activity. The co-operative movement must be greatly enlarged, so as to bring under its fold, all the economic activities of the villagers. The middle-men who are exploiting the villagers, have to be completely eliminated and should be replaced by co-operative societies which should cater to all the needs of the villagers. The problems in all the villages are similar, but not the same. Hence, it is necessary to study in detail, the nature and extent of rural problems in any area, before attempts are made to solve them. The community projects launched in India, represent a bold bid to tackle the numerous problems in the villages of India, by means of a comprehensive programme of organised activities.

## CHAPTER IX

### COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

The community development programmes initiated in India, represent a new and dynamic approach to the task of rural re-construction. A broad-minded outlook and a broad-based approach in respect of the inter-related socio-economic problems in the villages have gained currency. The community projects and the N.E.S. were the two agencies set up, to bring about a silent revolution in the countryside, and to set the pace for all-round rural regeneration and agricultural re-organisation. The community projects, as part of the programmes included in the First Five-Year Plan, were inaugurated on 2, October 1918, followed by the inauguration of the N. E. S. next year. It was only fit and proper, that the birth of these schemes for rural welfare, should have been timed for the birthday of Gandhiji, who had led the way, giving us inspiration and guidance, in trying to give a new lease of life to our villagers.

**PROGRAMMES :** Till 1918 we were having two programmes in the field of rural rehabilitation, operating concurrently, running on similar lines, and leading towards more or less similar objectives. They were the community projects and N. E. S. The difference between them was not one of kind, but of degree, and of varying intensity. The community project was more intensive in nature with greater financial outlay. Since, due to paucity of resources, it was difficult to cover the country with such an intensive and expensive programme, the less intensive programme of N. E. S. was also initiated side by side with community projects.

From April 1918, following the suggestions made by the study team set up to review plan projects, the differentiation as between community projects and national extension service was given up. From that time onwards, there was to be only a single scheme

of community development, covering two periods, each of five years, with a block budget of Rs. 12 lakhs and Rs. 5 lakhs respectively, in the first and second stages of the development, which are initiated in the following manner.

The initial period of one year is known as 'pre-extension phase' and is devoted to preparing in general for the programmes to follow, and to initiate developmental activity particularly in the field of agriculture. The next five years are the crucial period of intensive development, and in the five years that follow the programmes are continued. But the use of the finances and machinery of the community project administration is reduced and later withdrawn when the responsibility for the continuation of the programmes will be taken over by the other departments and welfare agencies. It has been decided to cover the whole country by these projects only by October 1918 instead of October 1918 as was intended originally.

**OBJECT :** The object of the community project is "to bring about a change in the mental attitude of the people, and to instill in them an ambition for higher standards of life, and the will and determination to work for such standards. This is essentially a human problem, how to change the outlook of 70 million families living in the countryside, arouse enthusiasm in them for new knowledge, and new ways of life, and fill them with the ambition and the will to lead a better life."

The basic principle underlying these development programmes is that "the motive force for improvement should come from the people themselves. The vast unutilised energy, lying dormant in the countryside, should be harnessed for constructive work" and the "co-operative principle should be applied in its infinitely varying forms, for solving all problems of rural life".

**EMPHASIS ON AGRICULTURE :** In its operative programme, the main emphasis is laid on the improvement of agriculture, with a view to increase production. Agriculture which is the mainstay of the majority of the people in India, is sought to be completely re-organised, so as to ensure greater returns per acre and per person. Increased production and higher income cannot be ensured, so long as agriculture is carried on, in the traditional manner, with antiquated equipments and out-dated methods. The first task to which

the development programme addresses itself, is that of initiating an agricultural revolution in the rural areas, by applying scientific methods and modern techniques to the field of agriculture and allied activities. Where agricultural income is insufficient in spite of these improvements, development of subsidiary occupations or cottage industries is taken up as an integral part of the programme, in order to give them an additional source of income. The problem of chronic and seasonal unemployment is being tackled mainly by the development of rural industries. The principle of co-operation is sought to be introduced in one form or another, to deal with many of the rural problems. The history of co-operative movement in India is not very encouraging, but still, we are putting our trust in the movement, which is being re-organised and enlarged, so as to cover as many of the needs and activities of the agriculturists as possible. The establishment of at least one co-operative multi-purpose society in every village or group of villages, is the target fixed, and it is hoped that every agricultural family will be represented on it.

Organised community effort as the means of meeting the felt needs of the people being the essence of the programme, all available local resources in men and materials are being mobilised to the maximum degree possible. The construction of schools, village roads, recreation centres and similar undertakings of common use and utility, are mostly undertaken with the voluntary labour and financial contribution of the villagers.

**ORGANISATION :** "The Ministry of Community Development, Government of India, and the National Development Council, are co-ordinators of these programmes on a national level. But the organisation is actually built from bottom upwards, and the village level worker, who is the last link in this administrative set-up, is the connecting link between the people and the officials at the higher levels. Each community project covers about 300 villages, with 500 sq. miles of area and a population of two lakhs. The whole project is divided into three development blocks, with a development officer in charge of each. The project executive officer is in charge of the whole project. In each project there are extension officers who are technical experts in agriculture, animal husbandry, social education, public health etc. in charge of activities in their respective fields of specialisation.



**VILLAGE LEVEL WORKER :** The person who functions at the lowest level, and keeps nearest to the villagers, is the village level worker, who is a sort of 'friend, philosopher and guide' to the villagers and helps them in accomplishing the development programmes. He is the one who takes the new methods, techniques and changes to the door of the agriculturist's family. In fact, he is the pivot, around which the whole programme hinges, and he functions in close co-operation with the project officials and the people. The panchayats or other village councils are given the largest share of responsibility, and programmes are formulated and finalised after discussions with them. The whole programme is chalked out in such a way as to make them feel that it is their own programme. The village level worker, who is described as a multi-purpose man, holds the key to the success of the whole work. He is a catalytic agent among the people, generating an atmosphere of co-operation, initiating and co-ordinating constructive work, which alone can solve the multiple problems of the multitude of people living in our villages.

The village level worker has to be responsible and responsive to the people, reasonable and realistic in his approach, and sincere and serious in his efforts. He establishes direct contact with the community, in individual and group relationship, and becomes familiar with the people and their problems. From contacts with the people and their leaders, he is able to correctly feel the pulse of the people, and move them on to greater activity, towards higher objectives. He should not get entangled in quarrels or conflicts in the area, but must be able to conduct himself in such a way as to show that he is above such things. He should try to lessen the conflicts and increase co-operation among the people. The demonstration of new methods and techniques in agriculture, forms an important part of his work, because the villagers are easily convinced by some tangible evidence. He makes use of the village leadership wherever available, because work with and through village leaders is more effective.

**FINANCES :** The finances for the scheme come from the state and central governments and from the U. S. Government. The scheme is receiving substantial assistance under the Indo-U. S. Technical Co-operation Agreement of 1918, amounting to nearly 10 per cent of the whole expenditure, mainly in the form

equipments. That the people should collect as much money as possible from among themselves is put into practice because the government grants will be on a matching basis with the local contributions in the form of cash, materials and labour. The financial outlay on community development during the first two plans was Rs. 240 crores. But in the Third Plan it is Rs. 294 crores with another Rs. 28 crores set apart for panchayats.

**NON-OFFICIAL PARTICIPATION :** The panchayats in the village or similar bodies of villagers set up for the purpose, are responsible for the planning and implementation of these programmes. To enlist maximum of non-official participation and popular support, advisory councils are set up at different levels. The existing administrative machinery of the government's development departments is given welfare functions and the resources and energies of development departments are directed to these tasks. At the state level, the state development committee of which the development commissioner is the secretary, co-ordinates activities. At the district level and the block level, the collector and development officers are assigned similar administrative duties.

**PANCHAYATI RAJ :** The earlier administrative set-up in the field of community development has undergone changes with the introduction of the panchayati raj on account of which the resources and the responsibility for planning and initiating development programmes rest with *gram* panchayat, panchayat samiti and zila parishad. Earlier the official machinery seemed to be all-in-all and the local people were merely spectators. But with the introduction of democratic decentralisation, real powers are now vested with the local people. The *gram* panchayat at the village level, panchayat samiti at the block level and zila parishad at the district level are the three important institutions in the decentralised and democratic pattern. Panchayati raj has been introduced in Rajasthan, Andhra, Assam, Mysore, Madras and Orissa; other states are also doing the needful to implement this scheme.

The *gram* panchayat, consisting of elected members, is in charge of the programmes at the village level. The panchayat samiti which is responsible for administering the programme at the block level consists of *sarpanchas* who are the elected presidents of the *gram* panchayats and a few other co-opted members representing women,

social workers etc. The major change is that the block development officer (now known as *vikas adhikari*) and his staff including extension officers in the respective fields, are subordinate to the panchayat samiti and work under it. The zila parishad consists of elected members including presidents of the panchayat samiti, M. L. As. and M. Ps. from the district etc. The various voluntary organisations also help in the development work in the area.

**ACHIEVEMENTS :** Regarding the achievements, the following figures given in *India 1918*, speak for themselves. By December 1918 about 3110 blocks covering 3.68 lakh villages and a population of 20.4 crores were in operation. The people's contribution represented 47 per cent of the total government expenditure.

Great increase has been recorded in the training facilities available for the personnel, both official and non-official, required to carry on the development programmes at the various levels. The Central Institute of Study and Research at Mussorie gives orientation training to administrative and technical personnel. At the Raipur Institute near Dehra Dun, training in teaching methods is provided to teachers and instructional staff of different training institutions. Non-official heads of the panchayati raj institutions also receive training in the same institution. Eight orientation and study centres are training block development officers and extension officers while 14 other centres train social education organisers and *mukhya sevikas*. The above centres which are run by the government have till the end of 1918 trained 3900 B.D Os. and S.E.Os. About 96 extension centres have till December, 1918 trained 41,996 *gram sevaks* (village level workers) while another 2,666 *gram sevikas* were trained in 41 Home Science Wings. Another 2585 extension officers (Co-operation) were trained at 8 centres while 10 other centres provided training facilities to 2,194 extension officers (industries) till October 1918. In the field of health personnel including nurse-midwives, lady health visitors etc. till December 1918 about 2,405 of these have been given training. About 30 lakh *gram sahayaks* have been trained by the end of September 1918. More than 19,000 non-official members of block development committees were given training up to the end of 1918, in addition to organising study camps for M. Ps. and M. L. As. on the community development programme.

**PHYSICAL ACHIEVEMENTS :** The cumulative record of achievement up to March

<b>i. Agriculture</b>	
Improved seeds distributed	2,73,20,000 maunds
Chemical fertilisers distributed	6,22,51,000
No. of improved implements distributed	15,95,000
No. of agricultural demonstrations held	80,47,000
No. of compost pits dug	93,00,000
<b>ii. Animal Husbandry</b>	
No. of improved animals supplied	74,000
No. of improved birds supplied	10,41,000
No. of animals castrated	73,85,000
<b>iii. Health and Sanitation</b>	
No. of rural latrines constructed	6,04,000
Pucca drains constructed	2,42,64,000 yards
Village lanes paved	1,27,09,000 sq. yds.
No. of drinking water wells constructed	1,84,000
No. of drinking water wells renovated	2,74,000
<b>iv. Social Education</b>	
No. of adult literacy centres started	1,56,000
No. of adults made literates	43,000
No. of reading-rooms and libraries started	72,000
No. of youth clubs and farmers' unions	1,49,000
No. of members	18,49,000
No. of functional <i>Gram Sahayaks</i> camps held	61,000
No. of leaders trained	28 lakhs
<b>v. Women's Programme</b>	
No. of Mahila Samitis/mandals started	36,000
No. of members	5,99,000
No. of smokeless chullahs installed	3,26,000
<b>vi. Communications</b>	
New kachha roads constructed	1,09,000 miles
Existing kachha roads improved	1,36,000
No. of culverts constructed	86,000

**EVALUATION :** Even though work in these development projects has been generally satisfactory especially in the last few years, there have also been evidence of defects in the planning and execution of these schemes. The Programme Evaluation Organisation set up in co-operation with the Ford Foundation, has reviewed the work from time to time. Several difficulties that stand in the way of progress have been pointed out by them. The more important among these are the general apathy and lack of enthusiasm among the people ; frequent quarrels and group conflicts among the

members of panchayats or similar village councils and the lack of proper planning and the non-availability of trained personnel. But still, it is not fair to judge the impact of a movement merely by the physical or external achievements. The change of outlook and attitude of the people is most important. But this cannot be measured with any degree of exactitude. Thus the intangible but still indelible impressions made by this movement, on the minds of the village people are of maximum importance. Viewed from this point of view, there is no doubt that the silent and far-reaching revolution that has been initiated in the countryside, will gather momentum as we go along. This major national bid to rid our rural areas of most of the existing problems there, aims to open a new and pleasant chapter in the life of our villagers. This attempt is unlike those previously made to deal with the rural problems in an isolated manner, forgetting that the village life is a continuous and comprehensive process. A many-sided development programme, touching upon the life of the villagers as a whole, and their problems in their entirety, was called for. The community project represents such an overall effort, to overhaul the village life, from its very foundations, with the co-operation and participation of the people concerned. The introduction of panchayati raj is bound to give a new life to these projects and a new vigour to the people.

## CHAPTER X

### LABOUR WELFARE

The evolution of the concept and philosophy of labour welfare has to be viewed in its historical perspective and against the background of the successive stages of industrial revolution. The development of the factory system of production with its concentration of men and machines, and the accelerated pace of industrialisation have resulted in the gradual ascendancy of machinery over men, leading to human neglect and misery. This had to be corrected and men and machines had to be put in their proper places, according to a new scheme of values, giving due recognition to the worth and dignity of the human person. Labour welfare programmes were evolved with the object of looking after the interests of the workers who had been overworked and overlooked for long. Just as the technicians look to the mechanical aspects, labour welfare concerns itself with the human factor in industry.

**INDUSTRIAL EXPANSION:** India is also involved in the process of industrial expansion, and apart from the usual problems inherent in such a situation, our industrial workers face many more difficulties as a result of factors peculiar to our economic and cultural background. That the industrial workers constitute only a small part of the population, should not lead us into minimising their importance. Though small in number they represent the most explosive section of our population. The apathy and lack of vision of some of the industrialists have resulted in giving what is only a half-hearted recognition of the need for welfare measures. But at the same time, we have to recognise that many enlightened and far-sighted managements came forward to provide certain measure of welfare. Theirs had been a generous gesture, even though the measures provided may not have been adequate in all cases. Not all managements have shown such generosity, and

some of them were interested merely in getting maximum of work for minimum of wages. There were some others who felt that labour welfare was a luxury which they could not afford, and went about harping on the limitations under which they were operating. The fact that labour welfare provisions were neither universal, nor always adequate, prompted the government in prescribing a statutory minimum of welfare provisions, to be provided in all the factories and work places. With the emergence of a national government in India, labour welfare programmes have received a new impetus, due to the initiative taken by the government.

**WHAT IS WELFARE?** : Labour welfare is a term that has been vaguely used and variously described. On the one hand, it has been stretched to mean anything that promotes the welfare of workers, while on the other hand, it has been limited to such welfare measures which are beyond the minimum provisions laid down by legislation. Though there is a divergence of opinion as to whether statutory welfare provisions come under welfare proper, there is still a broad area of agreement on what in general should be the contents of welfare programmes. More and more people have come to accept the view that labour welfare may be understood to mean all measures and provisions, provided by the employer in and around the factory for creating better work g, living and cultural conditions for the workers. It may be better to adhere to this broader connotation of the term labour welfare, and be concerned mainly with the contents of welfare work including both the statutory and voluntary measures. Historically, legislative measures have often provided a legal framework for existing welfare practices, or supplemented or regularised prevailing welfare practices, still leaving ample field for further voluntary action. Even though more and more provisions are becoming statutory obligations, new avenues for voluntary welfare work are always opening up, as a result of new situations arising out of a more accelerated pace of industrialisation.

The case for more welfare facilities for industrial workers in India need not be restated. Even though agricultural workers in India may look upon their industrial counterparts as a pampered lot, their condition is far from being enviable. Their agricultural background, rural inhibitions, lack of education and technical aptitude, cultural patterns, half-hearted option for industrial calling,

all make them in varying degrees susceptible to physical and psychological difficulties in the heat and strain of industrial life. The worker's individuality is lost and his confidence shattered. Unless a comprehensive and courageous scheme of welfare provisions enables them to live and work in healthy and congenial atmosphere, industrial progress itself will be held up. That the rank and file of industrial workers seem to be better off, compared to other categories of workers in India, is no consolation because, compared to their counterparts in Western countries, our industrial workers are getting the worst in terms of food, clothing, housing and other amenities.

**SCOPE OF LABOUR WELFARE :** Viewing labour welfare from a broad and general viewpoint, a multitude of miscellaneous measures can be seen coming under its purview. Welfare deals immediately with proper working conditions and wholesome environment in the work situation and as such, includes adequate ventilation, cleanliness and sanitation, proper lighting, health precautions, accident prevention, limited working hours and necessary rest periods. A further set of welfare provisions deal with rest rooms and shelters, canteens, medical facilities, cloak rooms, washing places and lockers. What may be called economic welfare measures include maternity benefit, provident fund, workman's compensation and benefits derived from social insurance. In India, all the above measures are the subjects of legislation. There still remains in welfare, what may be called a completely voluntary sector, which has been developed by the more enlightened industrialists, but the provisions of which necessarily are neither uniform nor universal. They deal with industrial housing, recreational and cultural programmes, social education, educational facilities for workers' children, reading rooms, outdoor and indoor games, saving schemes, bonus, profit-sharing, co-operative societies, grain stores, picnics, conducted tours, annual celebrations and free transport. Even though the list may seem to be extensive and exhaustive, so much more needs to be done under all these categories, if we are to offer a fair deal to our workers.

**UNDERLYING MOTIVES :** Various motives have been at work, and different philosophies have prevailed in the field of labour welfare. In the earlier stages, paradoxically enough, organised labour has



often resented these welfare provisions because they felt that the underlying motive of the managements was only to avoid a wage increase or to shatter trade union solidarity. Such attitudes do not seem to prevail now, but still, we come across a number of other motives, good, bad and indifferent ones.

What is called the humanitarian philosophy in labour welfare is built on the bedrock of eternal human values with emphasis on the dignity of labour and respect for individuals. According to this, the worker is not viewed merely as a 'hand' that co-operates with machinery in the process of production, but as a human person with feelings, attachments, aspirations and individual needs of a physical, psychological and social nature. Thus the humanitarian outlook in welfare work is laudable because its objective is to provide the workers with opportunities for a richer and fuller life.

A doctrine of enlightened self-interest has become the dominating motive in course of time. This may be called a utilitarian philosophy which, as its very name indicates, is concerned with the utility that welfare can give, in terms of increased efficiency and productivity. Here, welfare is not an end in itself, but a means to an end, which is industrial efficiency. Welfare in this context is not advocated for what it means to the workers, but for what it earns for the industrialists. There is nothing wrong in recognising the fact that welfare creates a congenial atmosphere and a better frame of mind, both of which will add to industrial efficiency. But if this utilitarian philosophy is stretched too far, the workers may begin to react in a negative manner.

The democratic philosophy advocates welfare measures for what it offers in terms of social and economic equality, based on collective bargaining, equality of opportunity and such other democratic concepts.

A number of very base considerations have also provided the motive force for welfare work. Sometimes managements provide welfare measures mainly to show off or avoid increase in wages or for disrupting labour unity. But these do not seem to hold good any more except in limited number of cases. In the early days of half-hearted acceptance of welfare, one of the above mentioned philosophies or motives may have been the dominating factor. But nowadays it is more true to say that a number of considerations taken together, rather than any one of them, weigh with the managements in providing welfare facilities.

**WELFARE AT ITS BEST :** It will be accepted on all hands that welfare work should be for its own sake ; not for mere mechanical efficiency, but for human happiness. Welfare work should be for the promotion and maintenance of good relations between employers and employees. It should make the factory and surroundings better places to live and work and should transform the mental attitudes of both the workers and managements into one which is conducive to healthy co-operative activity which will be mutually satisfactory and beneficial.

There are workers who seem to appreciate welfare only if it takes the form of an increase in their money income. This attitude seems to be more prevalent in the United States of America, where the workers feel that they will look after their welfare best, provided their wages are further increased. Even though such an attitude seems to be understandable in the workers of the United States where they have reached a very high level of material and educational advancement, it cannot be applied to the rank and file of industrial workers in India. The need for general welfare programmes for our workers cannot be denied, at the same time recognising the fact that welfare is no substitute for wages, or its increase if possible. It is wrong on the part of our workers to feel that they would be better off if, for example, all that is spent on recreation and education is given to them in the form of additional wages. On the one hand, it is necessary to place the workers above economic misery and want, at the same time, other items of expenditure are also necessary because "man does not live by bread alone". Welfare should not be considered either as a luxury or an appendage, but as an integral part of the industrial order, not merely for economic betterment but also for educational, cultural and social advancement. It is also very necessary that the likes and dislikes of the workers should be assessed beforehand. Managements should not simply give what they think is welfare, but should consult the workers and provide what they also appreciate, in which case alone the welfare programmes can be considered successful.

**ROLE OF LABOUR WELFARE OFFICERS :** The role of the Labour Welfare Officer who is the guardian of the welfare of the workers is crucial to the success of the welfare programmes. He has often to reconcile irreconcilable viewpoints. His job is not easy and often he has been described as being between the devil and the deep sea,

between the devil of an employer and the sea of workers. But his work will be rendered easier, if both sides act with restraint, moderation and understanding. He should steer clear of difficulties, and guard against hasty conclusions and conduct himself in such a way that both parties will have confidence in him. He has to be a person of high moral calibre and personal integrity. He should not take sides easily because both the sides are likely to exaggerate their case. The workers have often complained that since the Labour Welfare Officers are paid by the management, they will invariably side with their pay masters. The managements often hold the opposite view that the Labour Welfare Officers are too lenient to the workers. Even for honest work, the Labour Welfare Officers may have to bag such criticism, and that from both the parties. First thing is that this kind of mutual distrust has to be removed. Both the parties should realise that if industrial peace and better relations prevail in the factory, both the parties stand to gain. Only when there is goodwill towards each other, and also a realistic acceptance of the supreme need to pull together, work in the factory in general and welfare department in particular will be successful. The Labour Welfare Officer should be a person with sufficient training in social work and hence able to understand and properly react to various types of human behaviour. He should neither give false hopes to the employees nor false alarms to employers. Thus we find that the role of Labour Welfare Officer is crucial to the success of the welfare programmes and that healthy co-operation between management and labour is a necessary pre-requisite, for the successful implementation of the welfare programmes.

## CHAPTER XI

### LABOUR LEGISLATION

Labour legislation in India goes back to 1881, when the First Factory Act was passed. We have travelled a long way since then and labour legislation has been amended from time to time. In 1881 a competent and comprehensive piece of legislation on the subject was adopted.

**FACTORIES ACT, 1881 :** Factories Act of 1881 is rightly considered to be the most important labour legislation both in terms of extensive coverage and elaborate provisions. The Act covers all industrial establishments employing a minimum of ten persons, if power is used, and twenty persons or more if power is not used. This Act is a central legislation and the state governments are to frame detailed rules and regulations in keeping with local conditions. Thus, all except some family units, have been brought under the purview of this legislation.

Elaborate provisions are included in the Act to ensure that as far as possible, the conditions under which the employees work do not adversely affect their health. These provisions insist on cleaning and disinfecting of the work places, proper arrangements for the disposal of wastes, proper ventilation, avoidance of overcrowding, control of temperature, elimination of dust and fume, supply of drinking water, proper lighting arrangements, provision of spittoons, urinals, latrines etc. The Act prescribes a minimum space of 350 c. ft. per worker in existing factories and 500 c.ft. in those built after the commencement of the Act.

Adequate provisions for safety measures and precautions are prescribed to reduce accidents. It is provided that every dangerous part of any machinery in the factory is properly fenced. If any part of the machinery is to be examined while the same is in motion, such examination shall be done only by adult male workers, specially

trained for such work, and wearing tight-fitting clothing. Women or young persons should not be allowed to clean, lubricate or adjust any part of the machinery in motion, if there is any risk of injury. A young person shall not work at any machine if he is not particularly instructed as to the dangers involved in working the machine, and the precautions to be taken. Women and children are not to be employed for pressing cotton in any factory in which a cotton-opener is at work. Provisions and conditions are also laid down regarding hoists and lifts, lifting machines, chains, ropes, self-acting machines etc. With regard to health and safety, the concerned state government is to frame detailed rules and regulations in respect of the different types of machines and devices used in different factories.

Chapter V of the Act deals exclusively with welfare provisions. Separate washing facilities for men and women and places for drying or keeping clothing are to be provided. Each factory must maintain first-aid boxes or cupboards with prescribed contents. Every factory employing more than 500 workers has to maintain an ambulance room or dispensary, with prescribed equipments under the charge of medical or nursing staff. Factories employing more than 250 workers have to provide canteen for the use of the workers. Where more than 150 workers are employed, rest rooms and lunch rooms have to be provided. If more than 50 women workers are employed, rooms must be set apart for the use of their children under six. These creches must be under the charge of women trained for this kind of work. In every factory employing more than 500 workers, Welfare Officers with prescribed qualifications have to be appointed in order to look after the welfare of the workers and to implement these and other welfare provisions.

The minimum age of employment according to this Act is fourteen. Those between fourteen and eighteen have to obtain a certificate of fitness and they cannot be employed for more than four and a half hours per day. The maximum hours of work for adults are 48 per week and 9 per day. After five hours of work rest intervals have to be provided. The maximum spread-over of work for adults is  $10\frac{1}{2}$  hours while for children it is 5 hours. Women and children are not to be employed between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. Any overtime work is to be paid double the usual wages. Apart from the weekly day of rest, leave with wages can also be availed of, at the rate of

one day for every 20 days of work. In case of accidents or occupational diseases, special provisions are made and the managements have to inform the authorities.

**IMPLEMENTATION :** The Act is administered by the state governments through their Factory Inspectorates. The occupier of the factory is to comply with all these provisions. Factory Inspectors are appointed for purposes of inspection in given areas and they exercise wide powers and have access to factory to inspect plant, machinery, premises etc., and to make on-the-spot studies and demand production of documents. These rights may be exercised by the District Magistrate in any of the factories in the area under his jurisdiction. The certifying surgeons are to examine young persons and others engaged in dangerous occupations or processes. The implementation of the labour legislation in general and welfare provisions in particular is not very satisfactory. On the one hand, because of the rapid increase in the number of industrial undertakings, which more than doubled itself in the post-independence period the inspection staff are found to be inadequate. In fact, labour legislations are to be implemented more due to the goodwill of the management than the fear of the inspecting staff. But unfortunately, there are some managements who are out to defeat the purpose of the legislation by looking for loop-holes and excuses. Hence, it is necessary to increase the number of inspecting staff for periodical and thorough inspection and more so to enlist the co-operation of the management for the faithful implementation of these legislations.

**INDIAN MINES ACT :** The Indian Mines Act amended lately in 1881 prescribes welfare measures as provided in the Factory Act of 1918 and adds a few more on account of the peculiar conditions of work in the mines. Special measures are prescribed for the safety and health of workers. Children below 15 years of age cannot be employed and adolescents between 15 and 18 can be employed underground only if certified fit by the medical authorities. On no account women can be employed for underground work. Even for surface work, women and adolescents cannot be employed during night time. The maximum hours of work are 48 per week and 9 per day. Overtime underground work is to be paid double the usual rates and for surface work  $1\frac{1}{2}$  times the usual rates.

Overtime is permitted only under certain circumstances. Every worker who has put in one year's service is entitled to take 14 days leave with wages if paid monthly, and 7 days if paid weekly or daily wages. For carrying out welfare schemes for mica miners, a special fund has been created by the government by levying an *ad valorem* customs duty on mica exported from this country. For the coal miners also, there is such a fund created by the levy of a cess on all coal and coke despatched from collieries. These funds are used to provide educational, medical and recreational facilities for mine workers.

The Chief Inspector or Inspectors of Mines may issue such directions, the compliance of which will be necessary to ensure the safety of the workers. If they are convinced that there is immediate danger to the safety or life of workers, they may prohibit work in that section or mine, until such danger is removed. All cases of fatal accidents are to be reported and enquired into. The Government of India have notified silicosis and pneumoconiosis as occupational diseases connected with mining operations, and such cases are to be immediately reported to the Chief Inspector of Mines by the employer. Various other provisions going into very minute details are included covering every aspect and process of the work and every part of the mine, so as to ensure the safety of the workers to the maximum extent possible.

**PLANTATION LABOUR ACT :** The first attempt in India to regulate recruitment of plantation labour was made in 1913 with the passing of the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1913. Government control was imposed so as to safeguard the rights and interests of labourers recruited for work in far off plantations. The emigrant labourer has the right of repatriation to his native place at the expense of the employer if he has served three years or even earlier under certain circumstances. Children under 16 years of age if they are unaccompanied by parents, or married women without the consent of their husbands, cannot be recruited. This Act remedied some of the gross abuses in the recruitment of labour, but did not contain any provision regarding wages, hours of work, working conditions or welfare measures.

The Plantation Labour Act, 1914 which came into force in April 1914 was an important Act which contained provisions for the care and protection of plantation labour. It applied to tea, coffee, rubber

and cinchona plantations of 25 acres or more and employing a minimum of 30 persons. Welfare provisions are modelled on the Factory Act of 1914. The employers have to supply drinking water, blankets, raincoats etc. and provide urinals, latrines, canteens, creches, housing, medical and educational facilities. Plantations engaging more than 300 workers should employ Labour Welfare Officers. Children under 12 cannot be employed and those between 15 and 18 can be employed only if certified fit for employment and that too only for 40 hours per week. For adults, the working hours are 54 per week. Work between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. is prohibited for women and children. Leave with wages, sickness allowance and maternity benefit are also available.

**INDIAN RAILWAYS ACT:** The Indian Railway Act, 1890 as amended in 1914 had prescribed a 60-hour week for 'continuous' workers and 84 hours of work per week for 'essentially intermittent' workers. Under certain conditions of emergency, hours of work could be increased, paying overtime wages.

The railwaymen's representations to the Government regarding the hours of work resulted in an enquiry and the Rajadhyaksha Award of 1914. On the basis of this award, the railway workers are divided into four categories and their weekly hours of work are as follows : intensive workers 45 per week, continuous workers 54 per week, and essentially intermittent workers 75 hours per week. The minimum rest periods in case of intensive and continuous workers are 30 consecutive hours, while for essentially intermittent workers it is 24 consecutive hours. The excluded workers have rest period of 48 consecutive hours per month or of 24 hours per fortnight. For running staff four periods of 30 consecutive hours or five period of 22 consecutive hours per month are provided for. Welfare measures like provident fund, leave with wages and pension are also available.

**MERCHANT SHIPPING ACT :** The Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923, subsequently amended in 1914 and 1923, regulates the conditions of employment of Indian seamen. They can be recruited only through Seamen's Employment Offices and the master of every Indian and British ship has to enter into an agreement with every seaman, giving details regarding the voyage, wages and conditions of service. If the services of any Indian seaman are to be terminated



in a foreign port, he must be provided suitable employment on board a ship bound for the place of recruitment, or has to be sent back to India free of charge. Children below 14 cannot be employed and those between 14 and 18 can be employed under certain conditions. The wages are to be paid within three days after the delivery of cargo or within five days of discharge. Other welfare provisions are also included.

**DOCK WORKERS' ACT :** The Dock Workers (Regulation of Employment) Act, 1923, was for the purpose of regulating the employment of all dock workers. It is the responsibility of the Central Government in case of major ports, and the State Governments in case of minor ports to frame suitable rules and regulations ensuring regularity of employment, proper payment of wages, regular hours of work, better working conditions and welfare measures. In Bombay, Calcutta and Madras schemes on these lines have been put through providing for welfare measures and conciliation services.

**SHOP ACTS :** Shop Acts have been passed in various states regulating conditions of work in shops and commercial establishments, restaurants and theatres. Apart from weekly holidays with wages, the Act deals with opening and closing hours, rest intervals, hours of work spread-over and overtime rates. The payment of wages and employment of children are regulated.

**PAYMENT OF WAGES ACT :** The Payment of Wages Act, 1923 applies to all persons engaged in factories or railways earning up to Rs. 200 per month. The wage period is fixed as one month and all wages have to be paid in cash and within at least 10 days after the expiry of the wage period. Deductions can be made from the salary for contribution to Provident Fund and may include fines or other payments for amenities provided by the employer. In case of termination of services, all amounts due must be paid within two days after such termination. In 1923 the principles of this Act were extended to mines and a host of other employments in various states.

**MINIMUM WAGES ACT :** The Minimum Wages Act, 1923 provided for the fixation of minimum time rate, piece rate and overtime rates

in respect of 12 industries including plantations, rice and flour mills, carpet making, public motor transport, oil mills, etc. In several states it has been extended to a number of other industries as well. Where such minimum wages are fixed by State Governments or Central Government, the employer is bound to pay that wage, which may be revised at given intervals. Such minimum wages have been fixed by some of the State Governments for agricultural labour also.

**WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACT :** The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923 as amended in 1946 applies to all persons earning below Rs. 400 per month employed in factories, railways, mines, plantations and all other hazardous occupations. The workers have to be paid compensation at prescribed rates for any injury, disability or death caused while they are on duty. For permanent total disablement or death the rate varies from Rs. 500 to Rs. 6,300. In case of temporary disablement they are paid half the wages or minimum of Rs. 30 per month.

Those working in the armed forces and persons whose employment is of casual nature are not covered by this Act. The State Governments are authorised to apply the provisions of this Act to other hazardous occupations. Thus many State Governments have brought within the purview of this Act, those persons engaged in loading and unloading mechanised vehicles, those handling tractors or other mechanical contrivances and many other occupations in different states which are generally considered dangerous. The employer is bound to pay compensation in case of injury arising out of and in the course of employment. The same is not to be paid if the injury not resulting in death is caused due to influence of drink or drugs, or defiance of order etc. or if the injury does not last for more than a week. Persons afflicted by certain occupational diseases are also entitled to compensation.

The amount of compensation to be paid will depend upon the average monthly wages received and the nature of the injury. In case of death, the amount of compensation will vary between Rs. 500 payable to those getting below Rs. 10 per month to Rs. 4,500 in case of those getting above Rs. 300 per month. The rate of compensation in case of permanent total disablement of adults varies from Rs. 700 to Rs. 6,000 while for minors it is Rs. 200 in case of death and Rs. 1,200 for permanent total disable-

ment. In case of temporary disablement, fortnightly payments are made at the same rate to minors and adults which ranges from Rs. 5 to Rs. 30 depending upon monthly wages received.

The Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act, applies to most industrial and commercial concerns in the state. The Fund is created by the accumulation of fines realised from employees and other voluntary contributions. The Fund is made use of for providing recreational, cultural and educational programmes for the workers. It is managed by a Welfare Board with equal number of representatives from among the employees and employers and a nominee of the State Government.

**PROVIDENT FUND ACT :** The Employees Provident Fund Act, has been given an extensive coverage. The workers contribution varies from  $6\frac{1}{2}$  to  $8\frac{1}{2}$  per cent of the wages including D.A. and with an equal contribution from the employers. The benefits will be available only to those who have put in a minimum of five years' service, and increase with increase in service.

**MATERNITY BENEFIT ACT :** Maternity Benefit Acts have been passed by various states, Bombay taking the lead in . The nature and duration of the benefits vary in various states. The payment varies from 8 annas to 12 annas a day and are available for periods ranging between 8 and 12 w ks. The Mines Maternity Benefit Act, is the only central Act on the subject, and deals with all women employed in mines, conferring on them maternity benefits for prescribed periods.

**EMPLOYEES' STATE INSURANCE SCHEME :** Employees' State Insurance Act, was the first attempt in India to introduce an integrated system of health, maternity and accident insurance. It was originally inaugurated in select areas, but gradually it has been extended to most industrial centres in the country. It covers all persons earning not more than Rs. 400 per month, employed in all perennial factories using power and employing 20 or more persons.

The scheme is administered by the Employees' State Insurance Corporation which is composed of 38 members, representing employees, employers, Central and State Governments, medical profession and Parliament. It is financed out of contributions from employers and grants from the Central and State Governments.

The employers can recover from employees a certain contribution, by means of a cut from their wages. This contribution from employees varies with their wages, but the minimum is two annas and the maximum Re. 1 and four annas per week for all insured persons which amounts to 2 to 2.5 per cent of their wages. The employer's contribution is fixed as a percentage of the total wage bill all over India by the Central Government and is subject to revision. The benefits derived under the scheme are the following.

**MEDICAL BENEFIT :** Free treatment of insured persons is arranged for by the State Governments at State Insurance Dispensaries or at special clinics. Medical care and treatment is provided during period of sickness, free of any charge.

**SICKNESS BENEFIT :** An insured person who has paid a minimum number of contributions is entitled to sickness benefit in cash in the event of illness, for a maximum of eight weeks over a continuous period of 365 days, the rate being roughly  $\frac{7}{12}$  of the average wage.

**MATERNITY BENEFIT :** It is payable to women employees for 6 weeks before and 6 weeks after delivery. The payment is at the rate of 12 annas per day or at the rate of sickness benefit whichever is higher.

**DISABLEMENT BENEFIT :** Insured persons receive periodical payments for disablement from injury during employment. For temporary disablement, payment amounts to half the average wages for the period of disablement. In case of permanent disablement, insured persons are entitled to pension for life in accordance with the proportionate loss in their earning capacity.

**DEPENDENTS' BENEFIT :** It is payable to the dependents of insured persons dying as a result of employment injury. The benefits are available to the deceased person's wife and children at the following rates:  $\frac{3}{5}$  of the full rate to the widow for life as long as she does not remarry,  $\frac{2}{5}$  of the full rate to each legitimate or adopted child up to the age of 15. The rate of payment for Disablement and Dependents' Benefit, is one half of the average wages, for each of the weeks for which contributions have been paid by the employee.

One important development is that now free medical care is

extended to family members of insured persons also.

**TRADE UNION ACT :** Indian Trade Union Act, 1926 conferred on trade unions a legal and composite existence. Trade unions have emerged as a championing force in respect of the unity and rights of workers and a challenging force against the unscrupulous practices of some of the managements.

The Trade Union Act grants legal status to trade unions and protects their members and officials from criminal and civil suits for carrying on *bona fide* trade union activities. Registered trade unions can freely use their general funds for the objects and expenses of the trade union, and can have a separate fund for political activities provided that contributions to this fund are voluntary. The annual membership list and statement of accounts are to be submitted to the Registrar. The Act clearly states the obligations of and restrictions on the trade union movement.

Far-reaching changes have been introduced in the Act by the amending Act of 1947. The most important change is that its provisions include compulsory recognition of representative trade unions by the management. A union is entitled for recognition provided it is duly registered, all its ordinary members are workmen in the same or connected industries, is fully representative of the workmen, has procedure for declaring a strike and has executive meeting at least once in every six months. Disputes arising out of non-recognition will have to be referred to Labour Courts set up by the Central or State Governments. The recognition may be withdrawn for unfair practices or loss of representative character on the part of the union or non-submission of returns etc.

A list of unfair practices applying to employees and another one applying to employers are given. For the recognised trade unions, it would be considered an unfair practice for the majority of members to participate in an irregular strike or to support and instigate such a strike or to submit returns with false information. Similarly it would be considered an unfair practice on the part of the management to interfere in any way with the workers' right to organise trade unions or resort to joint action for mutual protection, or to interfere or help financially or otherwise, in the formation of trade unions or to discharge or discriminate against officers or members of trade unions or to refuse to negotiate with recognised unions or deny other privileges granted by the Act.

**INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES ACT, 1947 :** Elaborate provisions are laid down for the settlement of industrial disputes under the Industrial Disputes Act, 1947, according to which Works Committees consisting of equal number of representatives of employers and workers are to be formed in all factories employing 100 or more workers. Their function is to promote good relations between workers and employers and for ironing out difficulties as and when they arise. In case any disputes come up, a conciliation officer is to make enquiries and help the parties reach an agreement.

The State or the Central Government, as the case may be, have powers to appoint conciliation officers in a given industry or area, and if necessary, constitute Boards of Conciliation or Courts of Enquiry for resolving industrial disputes. If the conciliation procedure is successful, the decisions become binding on the parties for the period agreed upon, or in the absence of such agreement, for six months even after which it continues to be binding for another two months after the notice for termination is given by one party to another. In case of inability to reach an agreement, the Conciliation Officer or the Board of Conciliation is required to submit to the appropriate government a detailed report indicating the steps taken and the factors responsible for failure of conciliation and the suggestions, if any, for the settlement of the dispute.

On receipt of this report the government has to decide whether or not the dispute should be referred for adjudication. It is free to refer any existing or apprehended dispute to a Board, Court, Tribunal or National Tribunal and has to refer the dispute to any of these bodies if the parties either jointly or separately ask for the same.

Three-tier system of Tribunals is provided. Labour Courts and Industrial Tribunals at the lower level may be appointed by the State or Central Governments. These are generally to deal with matters arising out of dismissal of workers, application and interpretation of standing orders, strikes, lock-outs, reinstatements etc. The National Tribunal is appointed by the Central Government and adjudicates disputes when these are referred to it by the government. When any case is before the National Tribunal, Labour Courts or Tribunals cannot deal with any such matter. The award becomes enforceable after 30 days but the appropriate government have power to modify or reject the award within 90 days after publication, and the modified award becomes effective

15 days after the same is placed before the legislature.

An award remains in operation for one year and the government may extend it for two more years, provided each extension is only for one year. As a result of amendments to the original Act, parties to a dispute are free by means of a written agreement, to refer the dispute for arbitration even before it goes through the adjudication proceedings. Any doubts or difficulties regarding an award or settlement may be referred to a Labour Court, Tribunal or National Tribunal for final decision.

While the dispute is before a Board or Tribunal, the government may prohibit the continuance of strike or lock-out. Strikes and lock-outs in public utility undertakings are illegal if the same is declared without giving proper notice or while conciliation proceedings are going on. All strikes and lock-outs in any undertaking during any period are illegal when any settlement or award is in operation or during and after a fixed time after the proceedings before the Board or Tribunal. Lay off compensation, retrenchment compensation etc. are available to the affected workers as per conditions laid down in the Act. According to the Act, industrial dispute is any dispute or difference between employers and employers or between employers and workmen, or between workmen and workmen, connected with the employment or non-employment, terms of employment, condition of labour etc. of any person.

**IMPLEMENTATION :** We have a heavy load of labour legislation in our country. But that should not give us a false sense of security or complacency. So much remains to be done in codifying, streamlining and implementing labour legislation. With the increase in the extent and complexity of industrialisation, the administrative machinery has to be considerably modified and strengthened. Even though most of the managements are properly implementing them, there are still some others who are paying only lip service to these welfare provisions. Inspection of factories and mines is neither complete nor satisfactory. The positive role of Welfare Officers and the co-operation of managements is crucial to the major task that lies ahead viz. the proper implementation of labour legislation not merely in letter but also in spirit.

## CHAPTER XII

### CHILD WELFARE

Child welfare work broadly understood as to signify efforts to take care of the physical well-being of the destitute, delinquent, deserted or maladjusted children is not anything new. But what is new is that the whole concept of child welfare has developed new dimensions which have resulted in the broadening of the concept and widening of the field of child welfare. Instead of being confined to honest but often unco-ordinated efforts in providing these children with food, shelter and clothing, the emphasis has now been shifted to the provision of a comprehensive programme. The development of an integrated approach seeks to secure at one and the same time their physical, intellectual and emotional well-being conducive to proper development of their personality.

**CHILD'S WORLD :** The advance made in social sciences like psychology, anthropology, social research and in biological and medical studies has greatly contributed to the development of the concept and field of child welfare. The impact of this progress has resulted in the child being recognised as a unique entity, with problems of biological and mental growth and development, very different and distinct from those of adults. The common fallacy of viewing children as the prototypes of adults, had resulted in the administration of programmes, unpalatable to their tastes, and unsuitable to their needs. It is only in recent times that it has been recognised that the child's world is entirely different, his actions and reactions, likes and dislikes, ambitions and aspirations, moods and motivations are on a pattern so different from those of adults. The world the child looks at is different and distinct from the world in which the adults live and function. The vision that the adults get with their adult eye is not comprehended by the children. It is rather strange that the adults who so often



misunderstand or fail to understand the child's behaviour, forget their own childhood, and how they acted and reacted to the sentiments and sanctions of the adult world.

**WORK HOUSES :** Over long periods in the history of most countries, child welfare provisions have been meagre. Even though in many countries the problem of destitute and delinquent children assumed mass proportions, the mass approach adopted by the authorities and social workers, often did not meet the individual needs of the children that constituted this mass of suffering humanity of children. The "poor houses", "alms houses" and "work houses" of olden days did not provide anything more than mere shelter and meagre food, the quality and quantity of which had won immortal ill-fame through the works of Charles Dickens in England and others in other countries. The destitute children in these institutions were further disgraced, misused and led on to various degradations and deprivations. In short, many of these institutions were reduced to cheap labour camps which seemed to exist only for the sake of extracting as much labour as possible from its unfortunate victims. The principle that the inmates should be able to work their way through was misused in such a manner and to such an extent, that the whole thing looked like giving away charitably a little bit of bait in order to catch a bigger fish viz. the cheap labour they provided. A little expenditure by way of food and shelter was incurred for attracting and extracting cheap labour, while the whole atmosphere in most of these institutions had been uniformly and universally detrimental to the health and morals of their inmates.

**ORPHANAGES :** The orphanages which developed later were a distinct improvement on the "poor houses" and "work houses" which were misused and abused rather than used, and whose services were more often in the form of disservice to the inmates as well as to the community. In the orphanages the physical needs of the inmates were on the whole better looked after, even though standards maintained therein could be more aptly put as the absence of any kind of standards. One common and important disadvantage with these institutions was that the life in these being so uniformly dull, aimless and useless, these characteristics had an unfortunate impact on the personality of the inmates. In the absence of any

creative programmes, constructive activities and purposeful living, the inmates had only the appearance and not the real substance of human beings. The result was that the inmates have been reduced to a set of half-dead personalities and half-hearted persons, people without any initiative, personal ambitions or social drives, who were misfits in every sense of the word, both in and outside these institutions. It is only in modern times that it has been recognised that the real purpose and scope of these institutions is not so much to enable the inmates to permanently stay there and grow in them but rather to grow out of them and settle down in life outside as promising personalities and competent citizens. The ideal is that the stay in these institutions should be only for a period, a period of reformation and formation in which the inmates grow and develop within the institutions, only to be transplanted to the outside world at convenient times and in congenial atmosphere. The placement of destitute children in families, even though it did meet some of the individual needs of these children, was often subject to many abuses such as exploitation of the children who were often overworked and uncared for. But in modern times the quality and variety of child care work at the institutional and family level has registered a distinct improvement.

**FOSTER CARE :** In foster care services, children who are unable to go through the enlivening and enriching experience of a natural and normal family life on account of illness, desertion or death of parents or near relatives, are entrusted to the care of foster parents who become substitute parents for the child. The children in foster homes are enabled to have the experience of living and functioning in a family setting, instead of being dumped into overcrowded institutions where the children are not likely to get much understanding, individual care or personal attention. In the absence of the natural home which naturally is the best place for the child to grow and develop, the foster home represents the nearest possible approximation to the real family. The foster home is selected after conducting detailed studies regarding the background of the child and the would-be foster parents so as to find out the chances of mutual compatibility and to ensure that the child grows up in a congenial and healthy family environment. In foster care the child does not become a permanent member of the family as in adoption, but the relationship is terminated after its purpose has been served, which

is basically to care for the child during a period of emergency when the child has no one in particular to look to its needs. Most of the foster parents are given allowances to cover the expenses incurred on behalf of the child by the agency, parents or relatives placing the child in foster homes.

**PROCEDURES FOR PLACEMENT :** The placement of the child in the foster home is arranged by social work agencies. There are certain important preliminaries to be gone through before the child is placed in a foster home. Once it has been felt that foster care is the best type of service needed by the child, the selection of a suitable foster care home is the most important single step. In order to find out the type of home and the kind of parents suitable to the needs and temperament of the child, the agency has to study first the child and its social and emotional background. The case worker attached to the agency prepares both the child and the foster parents, in order to undergo the physical transition and emotional strain involved in this change and helps to find mutually satisfactory solutions to the problems faced by the child as well as by the foster parents. The parents or near relatives of the child, if available, help in the task of finding out the most suitable home which might provide the most congenial conditions for the growth and development of the child, with reference to the child's cultural background, likes and dislikes and ambitions and aptitudes. The child is subjected to medical and psychological examinations in order to assess its physical and mental conditions and to find out how best its individual needs — physical, intellectual and emotional — may be met by the kind of atmosphere and the type of people to be found in the proposed foster home, and the economic, social and religious background of the would-be foster parents.

The success of the placement in a foster home as far as the child is concerned depends greatly on the healthy and harmonious relationship that exists between all the members of the family in the foster home, which when shared by the child, has a salutary effect on its personality and enables it to have healthy and normal development of its faculties. The foster mother more than any one else is the key person whose interest in the child and love and understanding makes the child feel secure, contented and comfortable in the new environment.

**FOSTER PARENTS :** The best foster parents are those who clearly see their role, and realise that the whole arrangement is precisely to meet the child's needs and not theirs, whether emotional or financial. The child is to be kept there and looked after as long as it needs such care and till it is able to get back to its parents or when the home conditions become conducive. The foster parents should not stand in the way of such reunions or clearing-ups by thinking in terms of any financial gain or emotional satisfaction they may be able to derive. The social work agency which places the child in the foster home should look into the motives and age of the foster parents and the overall background in that family with reference to its physical, social, economic and emotional set-up.

The foster parents really assume the role of the parents in regard to the child's upbringing, education and training, subject to the supervision of the agency placing the child. Initially the child may find it difficult to acclimatise itself to the new environment and work out the necessary adjustments. On the part of the foster parents also the new situation would call for conscious effort to understand and accommodate the child and make it feel accepted and liked. When there are other children in the family, a healthy and friendly relationship has to be fostered and developed between all the children and efforts should be made to prevent the formation of any feeling of inferiority or sense of frustration or incompetence on the part of the new-comer. The case worker attached to the agency helps the child and also the foster parents in working out a mutually satisfactory relationship. The child's welfare, comfort and security is the paramount consideration and the parents or relatives if any, may maintain contact with the child. When the time comes and conditions so warrant, the child is taken to its natural parents as it happens in the majority of cases. Among different kinds of foster homes, the boarding home type in which the foster parents get paid for the cost of the services rendered, by the child's parents, relatives, juvenile courts or social work agencies is most common.

**ADOPTION :** When the child's natural parents are dead or are not in a fit condition to bring up the growing children, a child may be given in adoption. In this the child is grafted as a permanent member of the adopting family, in which the parents have only a few children or none at all. Even though children may be adopted

by near relatives also, the concept and legislation pertaining to adoption deal mainly with the adoption of children who are not in any way related to the adopting family. Adoption is both a social and legal process. Socially it refers to the social absorption and assimilation of the new member into the family, the grafting of a new branch to the family tree. Legally it is a process in which the adopted child gets legal status as a full-fledged member of the adopting family with rights of inheritance etc. So far as the Hindus are concerned the ancient Hindu laws in the bygone days and Adoptions and Maintenance Act at the present time, stipulate the various conditions to be fulfilled in order to make a valid adoption.

Since childless couples usually like to adopt a child, in many countries middle men make it a regular trade to bring about exchange of children between childless couples and unmarried mothers who are willing to give away their unwanted children. Children may be given in adoption even by other parents as well, who would naturally have the last word in the selection of the adopting parents. But trained social workers in adoption agencies wherever they exist are the most competent persons to counsel parents on the advisability of adoption and more so in the selection of adopting parents. In the United States, adoptions are arranged mostly by social work agencies which accept abandoned children, a good percentage being illegitimate ones, and take the responsibility for making arrangements for them to be adopted by suitable couples. The identity of the parties giving and receiving the child is kept a secret so as to avoid embarrassment, prejudice and jealousy.

**SOCIAL WORKER'S ROLE :** The social workers in adoption agencies have a very difficult and responsible job. They have to keep in mind the interest and satisfaction of the giver and the recipient of the child and above all the welfare and well-being of the child itself so that the whole arrangement is mutually advantageous and satisfactory. Investigations are conducted in order to assess and understand the nature of the child's social, physical, intellectual and emotional background. These include medical examinations, psychological tests, and study of the hereditary and social characteristics of the parents. The detailed studies regarding the child and its background enable the agency to select the adopting parents with similar or suitable characteristics. The bodily and mental

health of the adopting parents, their emotional and economic background, their attitudes and aptitudes, their qualities and qualifications are all taken into account before the final selection is made. At all these stages the social worker tries to help the various parties involved trying to work out necessary adjustments so that a mutually satisfying relationship is built up between the child and the adopting parents. It is usually only after one year of satisfactory relationship that the agency moves the Court to finalise and legalise the adoption.

**WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCES :** Child welfare work has made great progress in United States of America and special mention may be made of a series of White House Conferences which highlighted the needs and problems of children and set up a number of agencies to meet them. President Theodore Roosevelt inaugurating the first of these Conferences in 1909 declared in emphatic and categorical terms that home-life represents the highest and finest product of human civilisation and that a child's home is the best place for its growth and development, intellectual formation and emotional integration. This served as a corrective to the tendency to think that economic misery and destitution of the parents offered sufficient ground for the removal of the child to wealthy foster homes. But now it has been brought home to the minds of all that a home, in spite of its poverty, may be rich in emotional factors. Hence it may be best for the child to grow and develop there, if needed, with some assistance from social work agencies. It is good to remember that a foster home in spite of its rich external life may be poor in its inner life and the child put in such rich circumstances may be starving emotionally. These ideas precipitated the formation of children's bureaus, emergency maternity and infant care programmes and legislative enactments and social security programmes dealing with children in general and the physically or socially handicapped ones in particular.

**CHILDREN'S CHARTER :** Another great achievement of these Conferences has been the codification of a number of eternal principles that can guide generations of social workers in helping generations of children. This has been rightly described as children's charter or Bill of Rights. It runs as follows :

- I. For every child, spiritual and moral training to help him

to stand firm under the pressures of life.

II. For every child, understanding and the guarding of his personality as his most precious right.

III. For every child, a home and that love and security which a home provides and for that child who must receive foster care,, the nearest substitute for his own home.

IV. For every child full preparation for his birth: his mother receiving pre-natal, natal and post-natal care; and the establishment of such protective measures as will make child-bearing safer.

V. For every child, health protection from birth through adolescence including periodical health examination and where needed, care of specialists and hospital treatment, regular dental examination and care of the teeth; protective and preventive measures against communicable diseases, the issuing of pure food, pure milk and pure water.

VI. For every child from birth through adolescence, promotion of health and instruction and a health programme, wholesome physical and mental recreation with teachers and leaders adequately trained.

VII. For every child a dwelling place, safe, sanitary and wholesome, with reasonable provisions for privacy, free from conditions which tend to thwart his development and home environment harmonious and enriching.

VIII. For every child a school which is safe from hazards, sanitary, properly equipped, lighted and ventilated. For younger children necessary schools and kindergartens to supplement home care.

IX. For every child a community which recognises and plans for his needs; protects him against physical dangers, moral hazards and disease, provides him with safe and wholesome places for play and recreation; and makes provision for his cultural and social needs.

X. For every child an education which through the discovery and development of his individual abilities, prepares him for life; and through training and vocational guidance prepares him for a living which will yield him the maximum of satisfaction.

XI. For every child such teaching and training as will prepare him for successful parenthood, home-making, and the right of citizenship and for parents supplementary training to fit him to deal wisely with the problem of parenthood.

**XII.** For every child education for safety and protection against accidents to which modern conditions subject him and those to which he is directly exposed and those which through loss or maiming of his parents affect him indirectly.

**XIII.** For every child who is blind, deaf, crippled or otherwise physically handicapped and for the child who is mentally handicapped such measures as will discover and diagnose his handicap, provide care and treatment and so train him that he may become an asset to society rather than a liability. Expenses of these services should be borne publicly where they cannot be privately met.

**XIV.** For every child who is in conflict with society the right to be dealt with intelligently as society's charge not society's outcast with the home, the school, the church, the court and the institution when needed, shaped to return him whenever possible to the normal stream of life.

**XV.** For every child the right to grow up in a family with an adequate standard of living and the security of a stable income as the surest safeguard against social handicaps.

**XVI.** For every child, protection against labour that stunts growth, either physical or mental, that limits education, that deprives children of the right of comradeship, of play and of joy.

**XVII.** For every rural child, as satisfactory schooling and health services as for the city child and an extension to rural families of social, recreational and cultural facilities.

**XVIII.** To supplement the home and the school in the training of youth and to return to them those interests of which modern life tends to cheat children, every stimulation and encouragement should be given to the extension and development of voluntary youth organisations.

**XIX.** To make everywhere available these minimum protections of the health and welfare of children, there should be a district, county or community organisation for health, education and welfare with full-time officials co-ordinating with a state-wide programme which will be responsible for a nation-wide service of general information, statistics and scientific research. This should include (a) trained full-time public health officials with public health nurses, sanitary inspectors and laboratory workers, (b) available hospital beds, (c) full-time public welfare services for the relief, aid and guidance of children in special need due to poverty, misfortune or behaviour difficulties and for the protection of children



from abuse, neglect, exploitation or moral hazard. For every child these rights regardless of race, colour or situation wherever he may live under the protection of the American flag.

**UNITED NATIONS DECLARATION OF THE  
RIGHTS OF THE CHILD  
NOVEMBER 20, 1959  
PREAMBLE**

Whereas the peoples of the United Nations have, in the charter, re-affirmed their faith in fundamental human rights, and in the dignity and worth of the human person, and have determined to promote social programme and better standards of life in larger freedom,

Whereas the United Nations has, in the Universal Declarations of Human Rights, proclaimed that every one is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth therein, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status,

Whereas the child, by reason of his physical and mental immaturity needs special safeguards and care, including appropriate legal protection, before as well as after birth.

Whereas mankind owes to the child the best it has to give,

Now therefore

The General Assembly

Proclaims this Declaration of the Rights of the Child to the end that he may have a happy childhood and enjoy for his own good and for the good of the society the rights and freedoms herein set forth, and calls upon parents, upon men and women as individuals and upon voluntary organisations, local authorities and national governments to recognise these rights and strive for their observance by legislative and other measures progressively taken in accordance with the following principles.

*Principle 1*

The child shall enjoy all the rights set forth in this Declaration. All children, without any exception whatsoever, shall be entitled to these rights, without distinction or discrimination on account

## **120 METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK**

**of race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status, whether of himself or of his family.**

### *Principle 2*

**The child shall enjoy special protection, and shall be given opportunities and facilities, by law and by other means, to enable him to develop physically, mentally, morally, spiritually and socially in a healthy and normal manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity. In the enactment of laws for this purpose the best interests of the child shall be the paramount consideration.**

### *Principle 3*

**The child shall be entitled from his birth to a name and a nationality.**

### *Principle 4*

**The child shall enjoy the benefits of social security. He shall be entitled to grow and develop in health ; to this end special care and protection shall be provided both to him and to his mother, including adequate pre-natal, natal and post-natal care. The child shall have the right to adequate nutrition, housing, recreation and medical services.**

### *Principle 5*

**The child who is physically, mentally or socially handicapped shall be given the special treatment, education and care required by his particular condition.**

### *Principle 6*

**The child for the full and harmonious development of his personality needs love and understanding. He shall, wherever possible, grow up in the care and under the responsibility of his parents and in any case, in an atmosphere of affection and of moral and material security; a child of tender years shall not, save in exceptional**

circumstances, be separated from his mother. Society and the public authorities shall have the duty to extend particular care to children without a family and to those without adequate means of support. Payment of state and other assistance towards the maintenance of children of large families is desirable.

#### *Principle 7*

The child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the elementary stages. He shall be given an education which will promote his general culture and enable him on a basis of equal opportunity to develop his abilities, his individual judgment, and his sense of moral and social responsibility, and to become a useful member of the society.

The best interests of the child shall be the guiding principle for those responsible for his education and guidance and that responsibility lies in the first place with his parents.

The child shall have full opportunity for play and recreation which shall be directed to the same purposes as education, society and public authorities shall endeavour to promote the enjoyment of this right.

#### *Principle 8*

The child shall in all circumstances be among the first to receive protection and relief.

#### *Principle 9*

The child shall be protected against all forms of neglect, cruelty and exploitation. He shall not be the subject of traffic in any form.

The child shall not be admitted to employment before an appropriate minimum age. He shall in no case be caused or permitted to engage in any occupation or employment which would prejudice his health or education, or interfere with his physical, mental or moral development.

#### *Principle 10*

The child shall be protected from practices which may foster

racial, religious or any other form of discrimination. He shall be brought up in a spirit of understanding tolerance, friendship among peoples, peace and universal brotherhood and in full consciousness that his energy and talents should be devoted to the service of his fellow-men.

## CHAPTER XIII

### CHILD GUIDANCE CLINIC

**MEANING OF BEHAVIOUR:** It is a matter of common experience that many children develop unacceptable and undesirable patterns of behaviour which generally include disobedience, destructiveness, stubbornness, stealing, temper-tantrums, truancy, excessive fear and shyness, enuresis, difficulties of speech or of getting along with others, etc. These disturbances may be divided into personality problems such as excessive fear, anxiety, etc. or behaviour problems such as truancy, stealing, etc. and habit problems such as thumb-sucking, enuresis etc. The earlier approach tended to look at these expressions of defiance and delinquency mainly as a challenge to the existing order of things so fondly upheld by their elders and superiors, which inevitably led to punishment, very often severe. The advances made in the various branches of psychology have established beyond any reasonable doubt, the causal relationship between emotional problems of children and these maladjustments and delinquencies.

A further derivation from this kind of study and analysis has been the understanding that much of the criminal behaviour and mental disorders in adult life could be traced to the unresolved emotional disturbances during childhood, which in turn highlighted the need to probe into the emotional life of the children and offer correctives to their emotional disturbances. The establishment of Child Guidance Clinics as specialised agencies for the direct treatment of emotional disturbances in children marked the beginning of a new effort to tackle the problems of behaviour or delinquency on the part of children, by going into the root cause of all these problems viz. emotional deprivations and disturbances.

**REFERRALS :** The way in which problem children are brought to the clinic and enabled to undergo the direct treatment process

## **124 METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK**

is indicated by the 'source of referral' which refers to the person or agency taking initiative in bringing the child to the clinic. In most cases the referrals are made by the authorities of the schools, juvenile courts or social work agencies when they find that some of the children under their charge manifest problems which they themselves are not competent to deal with effectively. Where the services rendered by the 'Child Guidance Clinics' are widely known and appreciated, referrals may be made by the parents of the children. Services are commenced when a specific application is made for the same.

**INTAKE :** The first interview of the social worker attached to the agency with the child and the person who has referred the case to the agency is in the nature of an exploratory one. In this interview which is known as 'intake interview' with the social worker, the parents or the source of referral give expression to the nature of the difficulties the child is having. The social worker in addition to gaining an insight into the nature and extent of the child's problem, gives them an idea as to the kind, nature, duration etc. of the services provided by the clinic. This enables the parents to make a final decision whether or not to accept the clinical services after weighing in their minds the pros and cons of their decision. At the same time the social worker is trying to make an assessment of the child's problem in relation to the clinical services and programmes and makes sure that the agency is competent to deal with the kind of problem presented by the child. If the parties are agreeable to the giving and receiving of the clinical services, the details of the treatment process including the fee which varies according to the income of the parents are fixed.

**TESTS :** The details of the clinical procedures may vary from clinic to clinic and from case to case. If the nature of the case demands either physical examinations or psychological tests or both, the same may be arranged for either at the clinic or outside. Some clinics prefer to have only medical examinations at first and psychological tests, if needed, are administered at a subsequent stage in the course of treatment.

**DATA COLLECTION :** As these tests and other preliminaries are being gone through, the social worker is engaged in gathering

information bearing on the past history of the child as a person and in immediate relationship to those in the child's social environment such as parents, teachers etc. The 'difficulty' for the treatment of which the child is referred to the clinic has to be examined in all its manifestations and details and against the social and emotional background of the child which has naturally much to do with the nature and extent of the problem presented by the child. For this purpose the social worker interviews the parents, teachers and others who are closely associated with the child. This study is most significant because the version of the child's problem as given by parents or others at the clinic may not indicate fully the nature of the problem and how the parents themselves are involved and how their attitudes, lack of understanding and personal habits may have occasioned or accentuated the child's problem. This is in line with the modern belief that very often the 'problem children' become such because of 'problem parents' as contrasted to the earlier attitude of being concerned only with the child and its problem which was supposed to be entirely the child's own making.

The clinical practices at the present stage seem to present a more balanced and sober approach in so far as it strikes a golden mean between these extreme points of view and seem to apportion the blame as well as the responsibility for dealing with the problem on a fifty-fifty basis between the parents and the child. Thus at the stage of understanding the child's problem and later in initiating treatment process, the participation and co-operation of the parent is most crucial. The social worker tries to understand and later attempts to modify, moderate or modulate the social environment of the child and helps it to successfully go through the treatment process. The child's co-operation is as important and essential as that of the parents.

**TREATMENT :** The regular course of work at the clinic with the child and the parents begins when weekly appointments are commenced. The child and the parents come to the clinic every week. Usually the child is seen by the psychiatrist while at the same time the psychiatric social worker holds conference with the parents.

The most important feature of the work at the clinic is the integrated nature of the services provided to the child, parents and the community by the team work and the combination of the professional

skill of the psychiatrist, psychiatric social worker, psychologists and other agency personnel. Even though each seems to be functioning in an isolated manner in his respective field, they all come together, exchange views and information and assess the reactions and evaluate the progress of treatment in relation to the child's problem. The psychiatrist works directly with the child and if the usual channels for the expression of feelings are choked, engages the child in play therapy or similar activities. By studying its actions and reactions, the psychiatrist gains insight into the behaviour pattern of the child. What the child says is important but more important is the manner in which and how he says it. What the child does in the clinic is significant, but more significant is how he does it. The child reveals itself, its problem, its fear, anxiety etc. in what it says or does and the skill of the psychiatrist lies in obtaining a complete picture of the child and its problem from the incomplete, incoherent and disguised expression of feelings. The psychiatrist is no magician who might perform some hat trick on the child and cure it of its problem. His skill and ability consists in getting at the feeling tones of the child and making a scientific study of the child's behaviour which is always meaningful and purposeful and in trying to find out whether the child's problem is the expression of some conflict within the child or a clash with the child's social environment or the reflection of something unfortunate that has happened to the child or its parents.

Sibling rivalry may not usually be considered to be of serious consequences but even that may be the starting point for serious troubles. For example, after the arrival of a junior when every one including the parents are pre-occupied with the junior, the senior may feel neglected, without getting much attention or care. It is true that the condition of the junior warrants greater attention but that is no justification for neglecting the senior and misunderstanding him. Best thing is to prepare the senior and enable him to welcome the junior and afterwards make the senior a partner in the work of looking after the baby by giving him responsibilities for fetching soap, toilet articles, toys etc. This may seem nothing very profound but the absence of such an approach may prove to be very harmful and result in a feeling of rejection and a sense of dejection in the child's mind. When the child fails to get attention from the parents in the ordinary course, he begins to get it the wrong way by being destructive or hyper-aggressive. The



parents taking the child to the clinic may complain merely of the child's behaviour and fancy little that they themselves are to be blamed for it.

**PARENTS' ROLE :** In the interviews which the psychiatric social worker has with the parents, an attempt is made to discover the undercurrent of emotional ferment or conflict as generated or accelerated by the child's social environment. The security or insecurity which the child feels is often the result of similar feelings which the parents themselves have. The parents may have to be helped to gain an insight into their own feeling tones and their own areas of strength and weakness which may have a bearing on the difficulties experienced by the child. In coming to the decision to refer the child to the clinic, the parents have evinced not merely an understanding of the problem but also a willingness to be of assistance to solve the child's problem. This is a good beginning but has to be followed up by further efforts. Alongside of changes worked out in the attitudes and behaviour of the child, it would also be necessary to have similar or sympathetic changes brought about in the parents' attitude and demeanour. To realise the need for such changes in one's own attitudes, approaches and behaviour patterns and to introduce them in actual practice may be a painful process for the child as well as the parents. But they have to be helped through this painful but inevitable process if the treatment is to be successful. The clinic should be the place where the parents, specially the mother, should be able to rehabilitate herself emotionally and gain greater insight into one's own behaviour, attitudes, actions and reactions. This will result in gaining greater confidence in oneself and in handling one's own as well as the child's problem. Psychiatric social workers use case work skill in helping mothers to properly see their own roles and fully discharge their duties and obligations and proceed in the right lines and at the right pace.

**TEAM WORK :** Even though the psychiatrist, psychiatric social worker, psychologists and other clinical personnel are essentially working as a team, the psychiatrist remains the central figure in the treatment process. He examines all the data provided by the social worker, psychologists etc. and interprets all the materials gathered pertaining to the personal and social history of the child in relation to the problem and all the details about the child's

behaviour patterns as evinced in the course of interviews and tests. From the mass of details available he sifts and sorts out the most important and pertinent facts, selects the more salient traits from among the less dominant ones and delves deep into the psychiatric implications and emotional complications. Whatever course of medical or social treatment is needed, is initiated and continued under his responsibility and direction.

The periodic conferences that the psychiatrist has with psychiatric social workers, psychologists and other specialists help in the process of diagnosis and treatment and the clarification of views connected with these steps. The professional opinions expressed by the specialists in their respective fields of specialisation may be some times not merely diverse but even divergent. But out of these discussions and expression of different points of view, there might emerge a new approach to the problem which may be more balanced and nearer to a complete answer to the complex problem in which the child is involved. The specialists have a reputation for disagreeing and disputing among themselves but in the clinical setting even out of the disagreement about details may emerge an agreement about the central problem and even if opinions may not always be identical they may still converge largely to the main problem. Thus, free and full discussion helps to focus attention on the central problem and co-ordinate the treatment process. The team work of the specialists in the best spirit and in the best possible way is one of the most important factors that contribute to the success of the work in the Child Guidance Clinic.

## CHAPTER XIV

### WELFARE OF TRIBAL AND BACKWARD CLASSES

**TRIBAL WELFARE :** In the generally backward socio-economic conditions prevailing in the country it is not unnatural to find still more backward and primitive tribal groups living isolated mostly in the hill tracts of Central India, the Himalayan regions and other areas. Their habitats are generally inaccessible, their habits, bewildering and their origin and early circumstances confusing if not mysterious. But extensive research by scholars from several countries has revealed many facets and characteristics of tribal life and culture. Isolation in mountainous regions, undue attachment to customs and traditions, living mainly by hunting, fishing and gathering of fruits, primitive manner of dressing, cultivation and living and the use of tribal dialects may be considered the general characteristics of tribal groups, which are yet dissimilar and numerous. Many tribes have migrated to different regions and a degree of assimilation with other groups of people has taken place. In many of the mining areas of India a large percentage of tribal people is working and living with other groups of workers and they have undergone a degree of sophistication and assimilation. It is not very necessary to delve deep into their past because what is important is to look into the present state of affairs and to work for a better future for them.

**APPROACH TO TRIBAL WELFARE :** Tribal welfare work assumed real significance only after the attainment of independence and the inauguration of the Indian Constitution, which included a schedule of 212 tribes and a number of scheduled areas for purposes of safeguarding their interests and ensuring their development. Since tribal life in all its aspects is so unique, the work of tribal welfare must also be unique in nature, progressive in character and yet realistic

in approach. It is not possible to sweep away with one hand the hard core of tribal life, built up in the course of thousands of years, nor can they be abruptly pushed into the limelight of modern living conditions. What is needed is not to unmake them as tribal people but rather to make them better tribal people by helping them to improve their socio-economic conditions by sharing with them the knowledge and skill developed in this scientific age. Economic measures to help them in their agricultural and other avocations, educational measures to broaden their minds, health measures to protect and enrich their lives and cultural measures to brighten up their lives must be provided so that the tribal people while retaining what is good in them, can also absorb and assimilate the good things that others can give.

**AGRICULTURAL PROBLEMS :** The tribal manner of cultivation presents many problems. Though some tribal groups are used to settled life and permanent cultivation in one area, most of them are carrying on what is known as shifting type of cultivation. In this, the area cleared for cultivation is cultivated for a few years and then abandoned and the tribal people again move into other virgin lands. This was perhaps their method for escaping the law of diminishing returns. But when this is done on a large scale the problem of soil erosion will arise and thousands of acres of forest lands will be exposed to the mercies of winds and rain and lead to the depletion of forest resources. It may be pointed out that shifting cultivation will not have much undesirable consequences if an attempt is made to afforest these lands after the cultivation is over. Such afforestation and planting programmes if diligently carried out can be a source of income to the tribal people.

Programmes for the gradual elimination of the shifting type of agriculture have been introduced as part of the Five-Year Plans. Pilot Project Centres and colonisation schemes have been undertaken for the permanent settlement of tribal families. This is part of a long-term plan for the progressive elimination of shifting cultivation in the course of the coming decades and for the introduction of permanent cultivation in sizable parts of the areas inhabited by tribal people. The Government of India is fully supporting the efforts of the State Governments in this regard by giving grant-in-aid assistance.

Money-lenders have been too quick to exploit the tribal people,

As happens in the rest of the country, the money lent by money-lenders is never repaid and in fact, the money-lenders do not like repayments. They want to go on collecting the interest and the loan is a trap into which the people fall and they lose what little land or valuables they have. The loss of land in this manner and the insecurity of tenure on existing lands have been real problems facing the tribal people. The State Governments have enacted several legislative measures for ensuring security of tenure, scaling down of debts etc.

**WELFARE MEASURES :** The Central and State Governments have been functioning co-operatively for the establishment of Forest Labour Co-operative Societies for the purpose of eliminating the contractors of forest labour, who used to exploit and harass the tribal people. Another measure has been the establishment of *Grain Goles* in tribal areas to provide on the one hand easy means of purchase or loan of grain and specially seed grains, and on the other to serve as a pool or reserve to be utilised during times of scarcity or famines.

The development of cottage industries has been considered one of the important programmes for supplementing the limited and unsteady income obtained by the tribal people. Considerable amount of money is being spent under the Five-Year Plans for developing cottage industries such as basket making, weaving and others for which raw materials are easily available in the area. Training cum production centres also have been set up where the tribal people, especially the younger ones, are given training in craft and trades including tailoring, carpentry, making of baskets, toys, etc. During the period of training each trainee gets a stipend of about Rs. 35 per month and after the completion of training which lasts for about 6 months, they are also given financial assistance to enable them to buy the necessary equipments, raw materials etc. so as to get started in the trade for which they have been trained.

**MEDICAL ASSISTANCE :** The lack of modern medical facilities and the absence of basic amenities such as drinking water etc, and the fact of being cut off completely from the rest of the world accounted for their acute suffering on account of various diseases and illnesses. Once victims of any disease, they were helpless and miserable. Superstitious beliefs and practices and black magic did not do them good. The first to look into and attend

to the problems of these people were the Christian missionaries. They were later followed by the workers of several organisations such as the Ramakrishna Mission, Red Cross Society, Servants of India Society etc. In several areas deadly diseases such as leprosy, malaria, V.D., T.B. etc. were rampant and the State and Central Governments with the active collaboration of international agencies such as WHO, UNICEF etc. have done commendable work in providing medical facilities and preventive programmes in this area. But the number and adequacy of dispensaries, hospitals, mobile units etc. leaves much to be desired and at best it can be said that what has been done so far is a good beginning, but so much more remains to be done. The dearth of medical personnel willing to work in these areas and the problem of transport and communication have been holding up the work in this field. Sometimes the medical personnel lacks the genuine interest and human approach to these people without which their curative and more so the preventive programmes cannot be effective. But sometimes in areas where the right type of personnel with the right kind of approach are trying to do their best, they get the wrong type of assistance. They are often handicapped by departmental red tapism and avoidable delays in the supply of equipments and understandable difficulties in the actual transport of these equipments over very difficult terrain. Greater understanding of the problems posed by the nature of the people to be treated and the kind of terrain to be covered, careful planning and effective co-ordination seem to be wanting.

**EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES :** The task of educating these people presents several difficulties partly because of the areas in which they live and partly due to their socio-cultural background. It has been generally admitted that the basic school type of education and training will be most suitable to them. Hence residential schools where the pupils stay, learn and get intensive training in crafts and trades have been set up in preference to primary or high schools where attendance is usually very poor since each locality will have only a limited number of children of the school-going age. Ashram Schools in these areas enable the inmates to acquire such knowledge and skills as are of special significance to their background leading to their taking up some useful and paying avocation for which facilities are available in their areas. More and more of these Ashram schools are being set up in many states. It is only

residential schools that can serve these children most effectively.

The emphasis in the training of the children must necessarily be on agriculture, forestry and other allied work for which there is scope in the areas. Increase of knowledge and the development of skills and aptitude must be basically related to these fields. Education for women and social education also must be so orientated that they become positive factors in the preservation of what is good in tribal life and at the same time absorbing new ideas and cultural patterns and also in developing local leadership capable of taking up the manifold responsibilities in the new life situations they are going to face.

**MULTI-PURPOSE PROJECTS :** It has been found that the problems of the tribal people are of a very specialised and unique character; hence the kind of programmes and the type of machinery developed for welfare work among others in the rural or urban areas of India are not very suitable for them. Even though a large part of welfare programmes in general which seeks to meet basic human needs is applicable to the tribal people as well, the emphasis and the approach will have to be suitably modified so as to meet the special needs and problems of the tribal people. The multi-purpose blocks set up for the welfare of the tribal people have been specially designed to secure a rapid improvement in the socio-economic conditions of the tribal people by means of intensive programmes designed to cover and improve every aspect of tribal life. It is very important to develop such a positive approach to them so as to obtain the co-operation and participation of the tribal people in the fulfilment of these programmes designed for their all-round betterment.

**TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATION :** The implementation of all the welfare programmes discussed above depends a great deal on the rapid development of means of transport and communications in these areas. The opening up of these regions with a wide network of roads and linking up these areas with trunk roads or railway lines is of primary importance. The problems of isolation, primitivism and backwardness can be tackled effectively only by the development of means of transport and communication which will indirectly open up the minds of tribal people by contacts with other people. But at the same time the actual work on these lines in most of the

areas will present many problems. But all the same the work is as important as it is difficult. A considerable amount of funds has been provided for this purpose under the Five-Year Plans. The development of transport and communications will bring the tribal and the general population closer, not merely in physical, proximity but also by greater acceptance of each other. On the one hand it will enable the tribal people to come into contact with the rest of the country and its people and get the much needed medical and general supplies easily. On the other hand it becomes possible to send their forest products, fruits, etc. to other parts of the country and get higher prices for these which are usually sold in the interior regions at throw-away prices.

The welfare of backward classes has been provided an important place in the Third Plan and these programmes are estimated to cost Rs. 114 crores compared to Rs. 79 crores in the Second Plan and Rs. 30 crores in the First Plan. Programmes for educational development will cost Rs. 42 crores while Rs. 47 crores are provided for economic betterment programmes and Rs. 25 crores are set apart for health, housing and such other schemes. With regard to the tribal people, maximum emphasis is laid on their economic rehabilitation, along with the development of educational facilities, transport and communications, improvement of agriculture and other tribal crafts and trades.

**SCHEDULED CASTES AND TRIBES :** The welfare programmes for the benefit of backward classes have become an integral part of the government policy as the same have been included in the "Directive Principles of State Policy" which states that the State shall promote with special care the educational and economic interests of the weaker sections of the people and in particular the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and shall protect them from social injustice and all forms of exploitation. Another constitutional provision has been the appointment of a Commission to enquire into the condition and difficulties of the backward classes and to make suitable recommendations to improve the present state of affairs.

The magnitude of the problem of welfare work among these classes can be realised when we consider that there are more than 800 Scheduled Castes with a population of over 5½ crores and more than 300 Scheduled Tribes numbering more than 2 crores. It may be noted that these are just two categories and there are thousands



of other communities which are also backward. Most of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes have been considered untouchables. From the legal point of view untouchability has been abolished by making the practice of it in any form in any part of the country a cognizable offence. But unfortunately one finds that in so many subtle ways, and sometimes in ruthless and deliberate manner, the same is being practised. Social legislation such as this cannot succeed unless there is an enlightened public opinion which whole-heartedly supports the measure. That is why we find a yawning gap between the theoretical acceptance and practical adherence to programmes such as the abolition of untouchability. Not by a change in statutes but only by a change in the hearts and minds of people, can this problem be tackled.

The Backward Classes Commission presented its report in 1955 which contained very useful information and some helpful suggestions. But it has been remarked that the observations contained were too general and rather broadbased. It did not clearly define or enumerate these classes. It has been left to the State Governments to draw up the list of Scheduled Castes, Tribes and other backward classes in their respective States.

✓ **WELFARE PROGRAMMES :** The grant of scholarships, reservation of a certain proportion of Government posts and other suitable welfare measures have been provided for the benefit of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes. Even though these people form part of the general community, they are pressed down and pushed backward by various social and economic disabilities. Liberal provisions have been made in the plans drawn up by the States for this item and in addition, the Home Ministry has provided for some centrally sponsored programmes in the Third Five-Year Plan.

These include schemes to improve the working conditions of people engaged in unclean occupations, to subsidise housing for sweepers and scavengers, to provide house sites for members of Scheduled Castes engaged in unclean occupations or landless labourers, to award post-matric scholarship and to aid voluntary organisations.

The protective and welfare measures granted by the Government have gone a long way in correcting the long standing evils contained in the social structure. But there are also some critics who would go to the extent of saying that over-solicitous nature of the

Government in granting loans, scholarships, reservation of posts etc. to Scheduled Castes and Tribes, has actually made theirs a super class and even people belonging to the so-called forward classes really wish they belonged to the Scheduled Castes ! This is really an overstatement but there is some truth in it because when a whole community is earmarked for these benefits naturally the good and bad, clever and dull, provident and improvident, deserving and undeserving, all get the benefits, some of whom naturally waste these opportunities. But even this social waste cannot be grudged in their case because these communities have remained backward only because of the opportunities they have been denied in the past. And if we do justice at least to the present generation, it is but part of the compensation we owe to these people who have been suffering economic and social deprivations of the most extreme type.

**DE-NOTIFIED TRIBES :** Under the Criminal Tribes Act of 1871 a number of tribes whose hereditary occupations were loot, plunder and other criminal activities have been notified as Criminal Tribes. This Act was repealed in 1953 and since then they are known as de-notified tribes and not notified as criminal tribes. The origin and development of these tribes and the circumstances of their going into such criminal careers are all shrouded in mystery. But many people believe that originally these could not have been Criminal Tribes but that later when they were not in a position to carry on their hereditary avocations, they must have been obliged to go into the path of crime for making a living. Once having gone into it they could not retrace their steps and must have been compelled to continue their criminal careers. Among these some are nomadic while others have settled abodes from which they move out occasionally for their criminal activities.

The British Government took measures under the Criminal Tribes Act of 1871 to protect the citizens from the activities of these Criminal Tribes. Apart from the penal provisions in the Act, it also provided for Criminal Tribes Settlements where the members of these tribes could settle down to peaceful living. But these were not very successful from the point of view of rehabilitation. On the one hand these people thought that there were more restrictions than advantages living in these settlements which were sort of dignified prisons. Another equally disastrous thing

that happened to many of them was that due to continuous spoon-feeding by the Government they lost all initiative and began to look to the Government for everything.

This problem has naturally many aspects. The most important thing is to develop a positive approach and effective programme of rehabilitation. Their problems are basically human problems and need to be handled with understanding and care so as not to hurt their feelings but to build on their strengths, not to remind them about their criminal past but to pin their eyes and hopes to their future. The economic and social programmes on the pattern developed for the other backward tribes are being implemented for the de-notified Tribes also, special emphasis being laid on the work of rehabilitation and their gradual absorption into the society at large.

The Study Team set up under the Third Plan has made the following suggestions to be implemented for the betterment of these communities.

1. A combined correctional and welfare approach for their rehabilitation must be supported by social education programmes.

2. Economic programmes must be suitable to the background of these people and industrial and other co-operatives must be started for their benefit.

3. Training and orientation facilities must be provided, with a view to obtain opportunities for employment in public services.

4. Workers in charge of development projects must be those with intimate knowledge of the social and cultural background of these people and should make the best use of the talents and leadership available within the community.

## CHAPTER XV

### JUVENILE DELINQUENCY AND CORRECTIONAL ADMINISTRATION

**THE** problem of juvenile delinquency expressing itself in anti-social activities and criminal behaviour on the part of children, has been on the increase. The general awareness about this problem is indicated by the increase of public discussion on the subject. Juvenile delinquency is more easily described than defined because no one definition can adequately cover the various types and varying degrees of delinquency that is met with in the present day society. These include pick-pocketing, robbery, assault, murder, sex offences and the like. "Why these delinquents?" is a difficult question and no simple answer can be given. The legal, personal and social implications of the problem have to be gone into. This is rendered more difficult because juvenile delinquency includes behaviour patterns of great variety and varying intensity as between an inadvertent fall into an isolated delinquent act and a chronic state of persistent and premeditated delinquent behaviour.

**CAUSES OF DELINQUENCY :** The theory that delinquents are born and that innate criminal propensities with which they are born into the world, are solely responsible for delinquency has been challenged and rightly so. What is currently gaining currency is, in fact, the very opposite of this view viz. that the delinquents are not born, but they are made in and by the society.

Hereditary factors do affect personality make-up and consequently the propensity to delinquency but to consider these as the sole cause of delinquency is clearly an exaggeration. Hereditary factors resulting in feeble-mindedness or emotional disturbances may give a pre-disposition towards delinquency. Combined with other factors, mental deficiency has been advanced as a factor that accounts for delinquency. This view is mostly based on studies of delinquents

found in correctional institutions. But their mental deficiency seems to explain not so much their delinquency but their having found their way into these institutions, while the cleverer delinquents escape detection and consequent detention.

**PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS :** The psychological interpretation of delinquency as a negative reaction to frustrating childhood experiences has much truth in it, even though it does not possibly explain all types of delinquency. Absence of a positive and satisfactory relationship with parents or guardians during childhood affects the normal development of children. Thus unhappy childhood and unkind neighbourhood often give them anti-social leanings. All the positive avenues of gaining recognition and obtaining satisfaction being denied to them, they try to gain the same in a negative way. It is the sense of security, the feeling of satisfaction, and the degree of acceptance experienced in childhood that leads to positive behaviour pattern that makes the same meaningful and purposeful to them. Parents have a great responsibility in this regard. Their love and understanding as much as guidance and direction have the greatest influence on the mental and emotional formation of the growing children. Parents who are too strict, frustrate the children too frequently and provoke them into anti-social behaviour as a method of protest. Since they cannot rebel openly against the parents, they begin to work out their anger and aggression by indulging in delinquent acts. Parents who claim to be ultra-liberal and leave the children completely to themselves are no better. In fact they are giving them opportunities for open delinquency. On the whole, the personality make-up as conditioned by childhood experiences seems to explain a great many cases of delinquency.

**ECONOMIC FACTORS :** Poverty and economic privations have been pointed out as the main causes of delinquency. In India, this is the most potent factor. But still it would be wrong to attribute poverty as the sole cause of delinquency because not all poor children become delinquents. Conversely, a great many children of well-to-do parents also become delinquents. In India, there is a great deal of destitution which gives rise to delinquency, but not as an inevitable result of the former. Yet, by and large, the types of delinquency that we commonly come across in India in the form

of stealing, vagrancy etc. are mostly the result of economic distress.

**MULTIPLE CAUSATION :** On the whole the evidence we have seems to support the view that delinquency does not necessarily result from any one of the above mentioned factors, but is often the result of a combination of adverse circumstances. Delinquency has a multiple causation. The total environment of the children including cultural, emotional, economic and hereditary factors exerts a total pull on them, and their behaviour is a mere reflection of the characteristic traits they acquire from the life around them. Emotional disturbances resulting from broken homes, economic privations due to destitution or neglect and adverse environmental pressures in the form of bad associations and unwholesome influences seem to be the most potent factors leading to delinquency. Over-crowded living places, unhygienic environment, unhappy homes, unbearable economic misery and undesirable neighbourhood have all a part to play in the moulding of delinquents. These factors do not necessarily lead to delinquency, but all these are conditions which increase the incidence of delinquency.

**LEGISLATION ON JUVENILES :** Legislation in India in respect of juvenile delinquents has neither been universal nor uniform. Only some of the States like Madras, Bombay, West Bengal, Kerala, U.P., M.P., Bihar etc. have enacted Children's Acts, but unfortunately in some of these, they have remained merely in the statute books. Madras and Bombay were the first in the field, having passed Children's Acts in the twenties of the present century, which have been brought up-to-date recently. In general, legislation in India pertaining to juvenile delinquency, is neither clear-cut nor comprehensive, except that in varying degrees they deal with non-adult offenders.

The general pattern of Indian legislation on the subject is as follows. Any offence committed by children under seven is not treated as crime and is not punishable. Children above seven but under twelve are accorded special treatment depending upon their maturity and ability to judge the nature and consequences of their action. In India, juvenile offenders are described as children if they are under fourteen years of age and as young persons if above fourteen years of age but below sixteen. This is the general

classification according to age of the children covered by legislation.

The object of legislation has been to give special treatment to juvenile delinquents as distinguished from adult criminals. Before the Children's Acts were passed, juvenile offenders were also tried and convicted just as in the case of adults and sent to prisons along with adults. This was neither fair nor desirable and had very damaging effects on the children. Children's Acts have brought into being Reception Homes and Remand Homes where the juvenile offenders are received and kept during the time when their cases are enquired into, Juvenile Courts for the trial of juvenile offenders and special institutions like Certified Schools for the detention of the convicted children. The Government machinery and the Police Departments are helping to implement these legislations. The voluntary child welfare agencies like Children's Aid Societies, Societies for the Protection of Children, etc. are doing very useful work in enforcing the various provisions of the Acts.

**REMAND HOMES :** Remand Homes or Reception Homes are institutions where the juvenile offenders are given temporary shelter, before they are tried by the Juvenile Courts. When the police authorities come across delinquent or destitute children wandering about without means of livelihood or place of abode, they are sent to these places where they are admitted pending the decision of the Juvenile Court. The Probation Officers, who are trained social workers, make a thorough study of every child, employing case work methods in order to obtain all available information regarding the child's past including socio-economic background. After obtaining such an overall picture about the child's past, the Probation Officer presents a report to the Juvenile Court on the basis of which a decision is taken by the Court. Many of these Remand or Reception Homes are managed by private agencies, authorised and subsidised by the government. There are separate institutions for boys and girls, and some of these are set up directly by the government. The Probation Officers, apart from carrying on investigations in order to collect all available data about the delinquents, also initiate programmes aimed at making these children's stay in these institutions useful and fruitful. They are given educational facilities and medical attention. In certain cases

child guidance and psycho-analytical services are also provided. Vocational training is imparted to all. The boys are given training in paper work, carpentry, leather work and other cottage industries, while the girls learn stitching, knitting and other household crafts. But the overcrowded condition of some of these institutions, lack of trained personnel, financial difficulties etc. are holding up the expansion of these programmes. These institutions have also another weakness that their inmates stay there only for a short period of time. As a result, these training programmes are not very useful, unless they are followed up in the Certified Schools to which they may be committed or in the outside world to which they are released after termination of their stay in these institutions.

**JUVENILE COURTS :** Juvenile Courts in India have summary jurisdiction regarding civil and criminal cases in respect of juvenile offenders. These Courts are constituted by the State Governments under the various Children's Acts. In areas where Juvenile Courts are functioning, all offences committed by children have to come before it even though appeals may be heard by adult courts. They have also general jurisdiction over children who are neglected, destitute or uncontrollable and can provide for their safety if they are moving towards physical or moral danger.

The Juvenile Court is presided over by a Presidency Magistrate, assisted by two Honorary Lady Magistrates who have some background in child welfare or social welfare work. The proceedings of the Court are conducted strictly in an informal manner and the Magistrates appear in unofficial attire so as not to scare the "children." Lawyers are not permitted to appear on behalf of any child. The Court is to give its decision after close study of the evidence placed before it by the Probation Officer and, if necessary, after examining witnesses including parents or guardians. The Court can release the children unconditionally and restore them back to parents or guardians, or place them under probation for a period, whereby the child is set free but is under the supervision of the Probation Officer. If the child is found guilty he is committed to a Certified School where he has to stay till the expiry of the period of commitment.

**CERTIFIED SCHOOLS :** Certified Schools are institutions where the young offenders are kept until their term of detention is over. It is



by no means a prison and the children have great freedom, and can go out with permission and attend outside schools. Of course, they cannot run away and in case they do, the police are alerted in order to bring them back. The approach is corrective rather than retributive. The emphasis is on rehabilitation of the offender during the time of his stay and preparation for the life outside by the time his term is over. These Certified Schools are maintained or supervised by the State Governments and are under the charge of resident superintendents who are in most cases trained social workers.

Inmates of these institutions are given educational, recreational and occupational facilities. Elementary education is provided within the institution, while for secondary or higher education they are permitted to attend outside schools. They are given vocational training in some craft so that by the time they leave, they would have learned some useful craft or work which can help them to get employment. Industrial schools and agricultural farms are sometimes attached to these, so that the inmates can develop their talents in these fields. Medical aid is given inside the institution for minor ailments and for major troubles they are taken to other hospitals. Periodic medical check-up is a regular feature. Uniform dress is given. Group activities and group participation are encouraged and they also help in the routine work of the institution, such as keeping the place clean, helping in the kitchen, watering the plants etc. All these are organised not as a sort of punishment but as a form of outdoor activity. Discipline is enforced and disciplinary measures may range from solitary confinement to restricted diet, loss of privileges or doing some extra work. These correctional institutions are getting the assistance of trained group workers. Group work activities have been found to be very helpful in the work of directing these children into constructive and positive lines of action.

Even though Certified Schools are common in several parts of the country, there are in some States institutions with almost identical objects but organised differently. There is a great degree of variation in this regard. Reformatory Schools or Juvenile Jails are maintained by some governments. There are other charitable agencies and fit person institutions which are government controlled. Borstal Schools are provided in some States for the detention of young offenders between sixteen and twenty-one years of

age. In all these, reformatory discipline is maintained and training is imparted in useful arts and crafts.

**RELEASE AND AFTER-CARE :** Release and 'After-care' of the juvenile delinquents are of great significance especially while viewing the problem from a preventive aspect. The rehabilitation of the delinquents is complete only when they are absorbed into the society as useful members. This is the test of successful work with and for delinquents. The release of a juvenile depends upon his conduct. Usually they are released after two-thirds of their commitment period is over. In case of early releases they are on parole and placed under a Probation Officer. From Reformatory schools they are released when they attain the age of eighteen.

The attention given to these children once they are released from these institutions is called 'After-care'. Such after-care services are very inadequate in India. There are some After-care Associations, Children's Aid Societies and After-care hostels, which are doing very good work. But still they have not been able to touch even the fringe of the existing problem. Those children who are released and yet have neither places nor people to return to, are put up in these hostels where they continue their higher studies or training and try to get some employment outside. Public consciousness has to be stirred to the need for giving suitable jobs to these children. The stigma that is usually attached to children coming from these institutions has to be removed. If an attempt is not made to assimilate them into society, there is the danger that they may go back to their delinquent ways and be again lost to society.

**SOCIAL REHABILITATION :** In order to be effective in the work of social rehabilitation and mental readjustment, these correctional institutions must have a conducive atmosphere and a friendly approach. The officers should be people who have genuine interest in social work and the requisite training for the same. The children's stay in these institutions should make them dedicated democrats, instead of confirmed criminals. This would be the result if a negative, short-sighted and cruel policy is followed by the authorities. Along with the curative measures, preventive programmes also have to be initiated. This is very important because the juvenile delinquents brought before the Juvenile Courts represent

only a very small section of the delinquents in the country. The incidence of delinquency has been on the increase. There is also a general belief that delinquency is an urban problem. But the fact is that it is prevalent both in the rural and urban areas. Since correctional institutions are non-existent in rural areas we get an illusory feeling that this problem is absent in rural areas.

Social case work services have been singularly helpful in the rehabilitation of delinquents. The problem of delinquency cannot be tackled piece-meal. Only a full picture of the complete background of the delinquent can give indications as to the best way of modifying his behaviour, and hence case work is very useful in eliciting necessary information from him. The understanding and acceptance given by the social case worker acts like a tonic on the disturbed emotions and the distracted mind of the delinquents. Social case worker by building up on his areas of strength and using community resources is able to achieve the social and emotional rehabilitation of the delinquents.

**PREVENTIVE PROGRAMMES :** The saying that 'prevention is better than cure' may have become stale by repetition but still its basic truth remains. Hence a really progressive and forward policy of prevention has to try and eliminate the social environments which are greatly responsible for this problem. We cannot wait while the disease of delinquency is eating into the very marrow of our social organisation. We have to go out into the breeding places of these social problems and preventive programmes have to be organised before these problems take their final and fatal shape. The modern saying that there are more 'problem parents' than 'problem children' has to be borne in mind. The parents specially and the community in general, should endeavour to provide conducive atmosphere in and around their homes for these children to develop a positive behaviour pattern. They should be given opportunities for play and recreation and outlets for their energy and enthusiasm. Youth Clubs, Recreation Centres and Reading Rooms etc. should give positive avenues for healthy recreation and wholesome entertainment. Each child should be particularly helped to develop according to his tastes and talents and all those who have something to do with them should help in this work. The genuine concern of the parents, the daily experience of the teachers and the acceptance and understanding of the social workers, should,

**if properly canalized and directed, enable the community to face this problem of delinquency effectively and gradually work towards the total elimination of the same.**

## CHAPTER XVI

### CARE OF THE DESTITUTE AND THE HANDICAPPED

ON account of the crushing poverty and the general misery of the people, the problems of the destitute and the handicapped in India, have assumed staggering dimensions. The large number of people who are thrown on the streets, due to personal, social or economic factors need special care and attention. The society in general has an overall responsibility in respect of these unfortunate people who are in distress, often due to no fault of theirs.

**SPECIAL PROBLEMS :** The special problems of the destitute and the handicapped in India have to be understood, against the rapidly changing social patterns of the country, which have fundamentally affected the nature and extent of these social problems. In the earlier times, we had some social institutions in India like the joint family and the caste system, which had ensured a minimum of security and protection to all, including the handicapped. The head of the joint family looked after the interests of all the members, just as each caste had a special responsibility in respect of their caste-brothers. The charitable disposition, social responsibility and traditional hospitality which used to underlie social relationships, have gradually disappeared, owing to the growth of individualistic tendencies and decay of the social institutions. The charitable undertakings and philanthropic activities carried on under the aegis of religions, which used to give a degree of protection to the destitute and the handicapped, have been rendered inadequate, as a result of the great increase in the general misery of the people and the extent of destitution. Hence it is necessary to approach the problems of the destitute and the handicapped in India, against the historical background of these problems themselves.

**EMOTIONAL PROBLEMS :** The problems of the destitute are not merely economic in origin, as is usually supposed. The destitute and the handicapped face numerous emotional and social problems, besides economic problems which they invariably have. Most of these problems arise mainly on account of the social opportunities that have been denied to them and the chances of growth and development that have been refused to them. In addressing ourselves mainly to the problems of the destitute and the handicapped, we have to be clear in our minds, as to the basic fact that they are also entitled to a full and rich life just as other citizens. Their economic distress or physical handicap should not be used as a handle to forfeit their rights. Even when physical handicaps impose restrictions on their functioning, it has to be remembered that their malfunctioning is confined to the physical plane and that their intellectual and emotional potentialities are not dislocated. It is natural that they develop a feeling of helplessness and an inferiority complex. But the rest of the community has an obligation towards them, not to make them feel that they are so different from the rest of the community. They should not be permitted to develop a feeling of despondency or despair but they should be helped to face their problems, with determination and dedication.

**CARE OF THE HANDICAPPED :** Any effort to take care of the handicapped should be preceded by a study of the special problems arising out of the varied nature of the physical handicaps from which they suffer and the extent of emotional problems resulting therefrom. The varied nature of these physical deformities from which they suffer, puts severe limitations and restrictions on their abilities to make use of educational and training facilities, which have to be devised specially for them. The blind, the deaf-mutes, the crippled are all classed together and described by a blanket term viz. handicapped persons, but each category has its own special problems because of which special provisions have to be made to meet their needs. The statistics in respect of the handicapped in India are by no means accurate, but quite shocking all the same. It is estimated that the blind number 20 lakhs, while the deaf-mutes are over four lakhs, and similarly in respect of other types of physical deformities also, the figures are very disturbing indeed. Usually these unfortunate persons are simply made use of by their relatives

or other middle men who engage them for begging and thrive on the income of these victims. Nothing is done to relieve their misery or to cure their deformity. In fact there are even those who go to the extent of maiming even healthy children for the sake of employing them as beggars. Hence it is paradoxical that in several cases, those who are handicapped literally become the bread winners for their families or they are exploited by unscrupulous people. This is how some people's misfortune becomes the cause of other people's prosperity. But indeed this is a very sad commentary on the kind of treatment that is meted out to these unfortunate persons.

**BEGGARY AND ITS ELIMINATION :** The problem of beggary in India can be properly understood, only against our social background. Beggary has become both a way of life and a means of living for quite a sizable section of our population. This raises questions in our mind about the factors which account for the ease with which some people take to this degenerating but lucrative profession. Usually beggary is considered to be the consequence of poverty, but any attempt to attribute a kind of cause and effect relationship between poverty and beggary, is not supported by the evidence we have on the subject. The fact is that all the poor people do not take to begging; nor are all beggars poor. To over-emphasise the aspect of poverty as the sole cause of beggary, is to overestimate the part played by economic distress. As some of the recent beggar surveys in some of the Indian cities have revealed, there have been cases of beggars who own and rent out houses and some others having bank balances. When the chances of employment in other avenues of life are very limited, they move on to this profession. Half the beggars may be poor or victims of improvidence or other misfortunes, but a good many of them are lazy people taking to this easy-going life, while some others are thieves and criminals going about dressed up as beggars.

In India, because of the traditional charitable disposition and religious sentiments of our people, a very high premium is attached to the giving of alms, which is universally practised in this country. But the fact is that this over-solicitude towards the beggars has helped only to perpetuate the problem and as a result their number has been ever increasing. In olden days private charity or social institutions like the joint family could solve the problem of beggars because in those days the beggars were so few. But with

the great increase in their numbers, it is recognised that organised effort is required, if this army of beggars is to be rehabilitated. No one can dispute the fact that the society in general must be responsible for the maintenance of its handicapped and disabled. But it is an unpardonable crime that a large army of able bodied persons should be living at the expense of others. They are parasites enjoying a premium on their idleness. This has been the result of our reverence and veneration for the holy men who go about begging. Most people do not feel like turning away the beggars from their doors without giving them something, whether they are holy men or not, and benefit of the doubt is invariably given to the visitor, so that any one in a beggar's garb, is able to get away with something. Anti-beggary legislation has been enacted in several States, but in the absence of effective enforcement, most of these legal provisions have remained intact in the statute books.

**REHABILITATION WORK :** Permanent rehabilitation of those who are economically, physically or socially handicapped, is the objective that has to be kept in mind. It is very necessary to give immediate relief and material assistance to those who are in distress. But it is wrong to consider that our duty towards them comes to an end when we have given them food, shelter and clothing. This is so because men do not live by bread alone, and that bread becomes more distasteful when one has to outstretch one's hands for the same. In the institutions also, if we are merely keeping them there and feeding them, we are only maintaining their *status quo*. Giving immediate relief is a necessary first step, but the important work is that of rehabilitation of these people economically, socially and psychologically. The task is that of reclaiming them and making them useful citizens, enabling them to earn their living by some honest means, enjoying both personal and economic freedom. What is important is that these people who had been denied all opportunities for education and training should be given the same. In case of able bodied beggars, it is easy to train them for a job provided they are willing. But in case of the handicapped ones, there is need for a particular kind of training suitable to each type of physical handicap. As it is, the training facilities available in India are thoroughly inadequate. For the blind, who are two million strong in India, there are only 50 institutions which provide education and training facilities for about 1,500 blind children and



adults. The incidence of deafness is more difficult to discern, but the fact remains that there are only 41 schools which benefit about 2,000 deaf-mutes in India. On the face of it, training and educational facilities that exist in India are thoroughly inadequate and do not touch even the fringe of the problem. Hence the first task in advancing the cause of rehabilitation work, is to enlarge the educational opportunities and to increase facilities for vocational training, leading to employment opportunities or creative activity of some sort.

**NEED FOR INSTITUTIONS:** This kind of work with the object of permanent rehabilitation is not anything that can be undertaken by private individuals or private charity alone. There is a great need for specialised agencies, catering to the special needs of the destitute and the handicapped. An awareness about the supreme need for such institutions specially designed and equipped to meet their needs, has been recognised only gradually. Such institutions are required not merely for the sake of providing them with a place where they may be maintained, so that they do not become a nuisance to other members of the society. Giving food, shelter and clothing is important. But still more important is to provide, in these institutions, a congenial atmosphere and a new environment, which would give them a new start in life. The opportunities and the new orientation given to them will enable them to develop into good citizens, each one able to lead a positive and purposeful life. It is not enough to run these institutions on traditional patterns. These should be replaced by a scientific approach and a systematic method which seek to rehabilitate the inmates of these institutions, both emotionally and functionally. Such institutions may be broadly divided into two categories viz. the Correctional Institutions which seek to rehabilitate those who had fallen into anti-social behaviour patterns or delinquent ways, and the Care Institutions which cater to the needs and attend to the rehabilitation of the destitute and the handicapped. Mention has been made in another chapter about the programmes in Correctional Institutions. What remains, therefore, is to examine the agency programmes in Care Institutions like Orphanages, Homes for the Aged, Beggar Homes etc.

**AGENCY PROGRAMMES:** The programmes administered by these

Care Institutions should help towards the emotional rehabilitation and functional resettlement of the inmates. The programmes should provide for the immediate needs, but the orientation of the whole programme should be to stimulate the latent capacities that are lying dormant in them, so that at least in the long run they will be able to look after their own affairs, without being a burden on others. Any agency exists for the sake of the programme it administers and the success of agency administration depends upon the successful implementation of the agency programme. The chapter on Social Administration deals with the problems of administration of agencies in general.

**MINIMUM STANDARDS :** This brings us on to the minimum standards to be maintained in these institutions, if they are to become instrumental in bringing about a lasting change and a real reformation in the minds of the inmates, and help in the work of rehabilitation. The Indian Conference of Social Work has done well in preparing a brochure on "Minimum Standards for Child-care Institutions". The minimum standards to be maintained, discussed in detail in that brochure, are on the following lines.

***A. Physical Set-up***

- 1) Food
- 2) Water supply
- 3) Bathing
- 4) Hair dressing
- 5) Clothing
- 6) Conservancy and Sanitation
- 7) Bedding
- 8) Special feasts

***B. Supervision and Guidance***

- 1) Music—vocal and instrumental
- 2) Immunisation
- 3) Psychological help
- 4) V. D. Examination
- 5) Screening
- 6) Correspondence with parents and relatives
- 7) Contacts with supervisory staff

**C. *Educational Facilities***

- 1) Education—liberal and vocational
- 2) Library and Reading room
- 3) Training

**D. *Recreational Activities***

- 1) Medical—physical and psychiatric
- 2) Dancing
- 3) Radio
- 4) Games and recreation
- 5) Relaxed atmosphere
- 6) Group work
- 7) Gymnasium
- 8) Swimming pool

**E. *Social Re-education Programme***

- 1) Religious and moral instruction and exercises
- 2) Prayers and songs
- 3) Social re-education
- 4) Excursions and outings
- 5) Social service
- 6) Observance of national days and festivals
- 7) Approach facilities with voluntary workers
- 8) Canteen
- 9) Co-operative stores

**F. *Rehabilitation***

- 1) Restoration to relatives or parents
- 2) Adoption
- 3) Placement in jobs
- 4) Marriage
- 5) Sheltered workshops
- 6) Guidance to help disabled persons to select and attain the right job objectives
- 7) Provision of tools, equipment or initial capital needed on the job, to give the rehabilitated person a fair start
- 8) Artificial limbs, hearing aids

**G. *After-Care***

- 1) Follow-up adjustment services after placement, to make

## 154 . METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK

sure that the rehabilitated person and his employer are satisfied with each other

- 2) After-care hostels
- 3) Correspondence with ex-inmates

It is also required that each institution should maintain a record book for each of the inmates, giving the following details.

- a) Name, sex, date and nature of admission
- b) Names, addresses and economic status of near relatives (father, mother, brothers, sisters, sons, daughters, wife, husband, step-father, step-mother etc.)
- c) Reasons for leaving home and relatives
- d) Weight, height, measurements of chest, abdomen, condition of teeth, gums, tongue, eyes, ears and throat, identification marks, diseases or disabilities
- e) Education, or experience in any vocation
- f) Intellectual faculties, power of understanding, progress in studies
- g) Ambitions and aspirations; attempts to achieve them
- h) Attitude to religion and religious practices
- i) Personality problems
- j) Interest in fine arts
- k) Behaviour, discipline
- l) Attitude to relatives, associates, supervisory staff, visitors and others
- m) Adjustment to the Institution; interest in the activities of the institution; attachment to inmates or members of the staff or visitors
- n) A short biographical sketch
- o) Quarterly review of participation in the Institution's programme for education, recreation, health, vocational training etc.

It is obvious that in order to be able to administer an agency programme of the type detailed above, and to maintain high standards in its implementation, it is necessary to have trained social workers on the staff of these institutions. It is true that existing agencies are greatly handicapped because of the lack of finances and trained personnel. But these twin defects have to be

removed, if our work is to lead towards the ideal of rehabilitation. More funds have to be raised, and more people have to be trained. Each institution should have at least one fully trained person on the supervisory staff and others may be made to undergo at least some short-term courses which would give them an orientation in agency administration. Thus, on the whole, there is great scope for improving the efficiency and increasing the utility of Care Institutions. Some kind of streamlining of the set-up of these agencies and their administrative machinery, on the lines indicated above will greatly improve the situation.

## CHAPTER XVII

### SOCIAL LEGISLATION

**SOCIAL** legislation seeks to improve the general social condition of the people and specially help those who are socially or otherwise handicapped. Such legal enactments are essential in order to ensure justice to the weaker and neglected sections of the society and to safeguard their interests. Legal remedies may not be lasting remedies, but still they are inevitable. With the development of the concept of Welfare State, the social obligations of the State have been on the increase. Social legislation provides a legal framework which ensures justice to all. In India, considerably large sections of our people have been beset with numerous problems arising out of social and legal handicaps, and hence legal correctives in the form of social legislation became inevitable.

**CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS :** Social legislation has been further necessitated because the Constitution of India has laid down that the State shall strive to promote the welfare of the people by securing and protecting a social order which will ensure to all citizen's justice—social, economic and political. The Directive Principles of State Policy as enumerated in the constitution are very extensive and deal elaborately with the rights of the citizens and the duties of the government. In particular, it is mentioned that suitable legislation or other measures should be used to secure to all workers, a living wage, decent standard of life and social and cultural opportunities. It is also the duty of the State to promote with special care, the educational and economic interest of the weaker sections of the people and in particular of the Scheduled Castes and Tribes and protect them from social injustices and all forms of exploitation. Raising the level of nutrition and standard of living of the people, the improvement of public health and the prohibition of intoxicating drinks and drugs injurious to health, are also

included among the objectives of State policy. It is also enacted that the State shall, within the limits of its economic capacity and development, make effective provision for securing the right to work, to education and to public assistance in cases of unemployment, old age, sickness, disablement and in other cases of undeserved want. Social legislation enacted to better the lot of industrial workers is dealt with in a separate chapter.

In the field of social legislation we come across both Central Enactments and State laws. This is inevitable because the federal Constitution of India provides for a 'Union List', 'State List', and 'Concurrent List' and the subjects for social legislation are found in all the three. Some of the Central Enactments are compulsory in nature and the States must implement them, within the prescribed time. Union legislation which is permissive in character has only the value of recommendations. But still they have great moral force being the considered viewpoint of the Indian Parliament and the Government of India. Even where the State Governments have exclusive right to legislate, the Central Government for the sake of uniformity and effectiveness formulates general principles and even frames model enactments for the guidance of the State Legislatures. In the case of State subjects, there is great disparity and diversity in the enactment and enforcement of social legislation. In the case of Central Acts, the State Governments are empowered to frame suitable rules and regulations, elaborating and supplementing the provisions of the Act, in accordance with local conditions. Since we have a spate of social legislation, all that can be done here is to briefly touch upon the various social enactments dealing with socially and physically handicapped sections of the society.

**UNTOUCHABILITY :** The ruthless practice of untouchability had become so oppressive and degrading that social legislation was called for in order to do away with this social evil. The practice of untouchability in any form is now prohibited by law. Consequently every citizen can have access to restaurants, shops, hotels or places of public entertainment. Wells, tanks and bathing ghats can be freely used. Whatever is open to the general public cannot be denied to any person on the basis of caste differences. The doors of the temples have been wrung open for the benefit of Harijans and no kind of discrimination can be shown to them. No one can object to or obstruct their taking food in any hotels, engaging in

business, bathing in common waters, worshipping in the same temples and finally being cremated in the common burial ground. No shop may refuse to sell and no person may refuse to render any service to a person on the ground of untouchability. Severe penalties are prescribed for offenders and these provisions apply to the whole of India.

**VAGRANCY AND BEGGARY :** Various State Governments have enacted legislation with the object of eradicating the twin evils of vagrancy and beggary. According to the Bengal Vagrancy Act VII of 1943, any person asking for alms in public places may be produced by police officers before a special Magistrate who may send him to the Receiving Centre. After a thorough medical examination he is sent to one of the Vagrants' Homes provided by the government. These Homes have on their staff, medical officers and qualified teachers who impart vocational training and general education.

Madras Prevention of Begging Act XIII of 1945 makes it an offence to beg for alms in public places. From among the offenders the physically capable ones are received into the Work Homes and those unfit for work are sent to special Homes. Legislation on the above pattern has been enacted in Bombay, Bihar, Punjab, Mysore and some other States. A large number of institutions has been set up where these erstwhile beggars are given a chance to end their begging habit and mend their ways. Detention of offenders is a form of punishment, but in this case the period of detention is made the most useful and profitable period of their lives. This is so because they are given opportunities for education and facilities for training which will make them self-supporting by the time they leave the institution. Reforming beggars and rehabilitating them is no easy job. Prevention of begging by means of legislation alone does not solve the problem. We have to go deeper and go to the root of the problem which is the general condition of poverty and destitution which is a sad reflection of the socio-economic conditions in the country.

**LEPERS ACT :** The Lepers Act III of 1898 provides for the segregation and treatment of lepers. In case of leprosy patients who publicly solicit alms by exposing their sores and wounds and those lepers without means of subsistence, the State Governments shall make adequate arrangements for their accommodation and treat-



ment. The Police Officer can arrest and produce the leper before a Magistrate who after consulting expert medical opinion, can send him to a Leper Asylum in case he is afflicted by the disease. The State Governments have passed orders restricting the movement of lepers in public carriages. The Government may further prohibit the preparation and sale of articles of human consumption by lepers and their bathing and washing or taking water from public wells or tanks. If a person is repeatedly convicted for such offences he may be obliged to leave that area or may be sent to a Leper Asylum for detention. Any person employing lepers may be fined and those escaping from Leper Homes can be arrested and brought back.

**LUNACY ACT :** Indian Lunacy Act of 1912 authorises the State Governments to establish and license Asylums for the detention of lunatics. From 1922 onwards curative treatment has also been made available in these Asylums. There is provision for voluntary admission to these Asylums. An application can be made, supported by medical certificates, by a near relative on behalf of the lunatic for admission to these Asylums. The Magistrate after obtaining further medical advice may order for interim custody or commit him to an Asylum. Police Officers may arrest wandering lunatics who are believed to be dangerous. On arrest, he has to be produced before a Magistrate and examined by medical officers. He may be entrusted to the care of relatives or friends provided they enter into a bond agreeing to take care of him. Otherwise he is sent to an Asylum.

If a lunatic is not under proper care and control, Police Officers can report to a Magistrate. If the lunatic has been neglected or cruelly treated the Magistrate may order that proper care be taken or he may be sent to an Asylum.

All Asylums shall have three visitors of whom at least one shall be a medical officer. They may give an order in writing discharging forthwith any lunatic who has been cured of his mental illness. Those lunatics detained on petition may be restored to the petitioners on request, provided their condition is tolerable.

The Indian Penal Code also has certain provisions regarding lunatics according to which nothing is an offence if committed by a person who at the time of doing it, was incapable of knowing the nature and consequences of his act on account of unsoundness of mind,

**CHILDREN'S ACTS :** Reformatory Schools Acts in most States seek to establish or maintain Reformatory Schools, with proper living arrangements, training and educational facilities where young offenders are detained till they attain the age of eighteen. One may be released at the age of fourteen provided some respectable person has agreed to take charge of him or train him for a job. There are such schools in Lucknow, Punjab, Delhi and other places.

According to the Madras Children's Act IV of 1920 no child under fourteen years of age can be imprisoned under any circumstance. Those between fourteen and sixteen, if convicted for an offence, are sent to Junior Certified Schools while those between twelve and sixteen are sent to Senior Certified Schools. There are separate Certified Schools for girls.

Juvenile Courts are set up for the trial of children and young persons. The Probation Officers assist in the work of investigating the cases. The Juvenile Courts provide a setting drastically different from the ordinary courts. No child or young person can be handcuffed and Police Officers conducting them should be in plain clothes. The Chief Inspector of Certified Schools is the administrative authority and he is assisted by others. The Bombay Children's Act has been the model for several other States. More information on the subject is provided in the chapter on Juvenile Delinquency and Correctional Administration.

**IMMORAL TRAFFIC :** The Indian Penal Code contains provisions aimed at protecting the modesty of women. Insulting the modesty of women by word or deed is a punishable offence. Kidnapping girls under eighteen years of age either for immoral purposes or for compelling into marriage or obtaining possession of any girl under eighteen years for immoral or unlawful purposes is an offence. Sexual intercourse with a girl under sixteen even with her consent, is considered rape and is punishable. But if a married woman commits adultery no other person except the husband can take legal action.

The law deals with prostitution only when it offends public decency or becomes a public nuisance. The Police Acts have provisions against soliciting in public places and can control or prohibit the location of brothels. The Municipalities also have similar powers. Children over four years of age who either stay in or frequent a brothel are considered to be in moral danger and may

be taken under protection or placed under supervision. The system of dedicating girls as *devadasis* in temples has been stopped. Several States have enacted legislation for the suppression of immoral traffic. The owner who lets out his premises for use as a brothel is punishable. Detaining any woman against her will or importing women for purposes of prostitution is an offence. Prostitutes may not live near public places of learning, worship or entertainment. These regulations have not been very effective and often they have penalised only the prostitutes while the men involved often go undetected. Prevention of prostitution and reclaiming the victims is the more important work. Legislation alone cannot suppress this evil. Again it is confusing to note that even though legislation seeks to suppress immoral traffic, prostitution as such is no offence. Legislation deals only with certain practices like soliciting, living on the earnings of prostitutes, procuring, importing or detaining girls for prostitution, managing or letting out brothels or carrying on prostitution in prohibited areas. Otherwise neither the prostitute nor the visitor is punishable.

**PROHIBITION :** Temperance movement had been initiated in India long ago, and prohibition has been accepted as an important plank in the social welfare programme in India. When Popular Ministries were formed in 1937 necessary measures were enacted and prohibition schemes were launched in five of the important provinces. But with the resignation of these ministries in 1939 the movement fell into relapse from which it recovered only after the attainment of freedom in 1947. India's Constitution enjoins that the State shall endeavour to bring about prohibition throughout the country. Both the Prohibition Enquiry Committee and the Planning Commission are of the opinion that country-wide prohibition should be introduced as speedily as possible. A proper programme of prohibition and an effective machinery for implementation have yet to be formulated. Prohibition is a State subject and the Central Government can only give general directions. It is for each State to draw up a programme of prohibition and fix a date for its inauguration. Some of the States have fully or partially implemented prohibition, while others are hesitant either because they do not feel that it will be effective or because of the financial loss to the Government Treasury on account of prohibition.

With the reorganisation of States previous statistics are not of any

value. Complete prohibition has been introduced only in some of the States while others have introduced a phased programme. Some degree of prohibition exists in all the States. In fact there is a great deal of anomaly as a result of discrepancies and disparities, sometimes even between neighbouring States. The Planning Commission has recommended the introduction of a uniform and phased programme in order to gradually eliminate the evil of drink. But it is unfortunate that these well-intentioned measures have often been ineffective and paradoxically enough, with the tightening up and intensification of the prohibition drive, there has also been a parallel increase in the number of prohibition offences.

Regarding opium and other narcotic drugs, government's monopoly in the production and sale of these, is being used to gradually cut the supply by about ten per cent every year so as to gradually eliminate the evil.

Prohibition is not easy, but it is a noble ideal. It is claimed that prohibition has brought about economic and social betterment to thousands of families. It has resulted in peaceful and contented family life. Families have been able to put back something for the rainy day, for the education of children or the marriage of daughters.

**HINDU LAWS OF INHERITANCE AND SUCCESSION :** In general, the British administrators left unaltered the laws of inheritance, succession, marriage, religious and social obligations etc. that had been in vogue among Hindus in India. In these matters, Hindus have been governed by Hindu laws which date back to the time of Manu, the great law-giver, while the Muslims and Christians had their own laws and customs. Manu had based himself on the caste system, and in all the elaborate rules of conduct he had laid down, what is most striking is the secondary position he had assigned to women. Some of these customs and practices are not in accordance with the letter and spirit of the Indian Constitution which naturally cannot at once erase all that has been woven into the social fabric of the country over a period of 2,000 years or more.

Hindu laws and customs seem to have been written or formulated from a man's point of view. The brutal customs like female infanticide and *sati* were abolished not so long ago. Some other instances of British legislation in this field were in raising the age of consent for marriage, permitting widows to remarry, discouraging child marriages and permitting inter-caste marriages. In general

it may be noted that the ancient Hindu laws were more a liability than an asset to Hindu women.

Regarding inheritance, both *Mitakshara* and *Dayabhaga* laws exclude women from inheritance. It goes to sons but in their absence women may enjoy the property on certain conditions. Widows enjoying husband's property must remain chaste. But in certain places we come across the matriarchal system also where all inheritance is, through the mother.

According to the Hindu law the husband can freely adopt a child, but if the wife wants to do so she must obtain the consent of the husband. In certain cases widows cannot adopt at all, while in other cases they can do so if they had been previously authorised by the husband.

The father is the guardian of the minor children and their property. The mother comes only next to him even in case of small children. The preferential claims of the father are recognised by law and custom. In the matter of giving daughters in marriage the consent of the mother has in theory only secondary importance but in practice it may be very different.

Hindu women could not marry another while the husband lived, while men could legally marry a number of wives. The Hindu marriage was mostly sacramental and not contractual.

The Hindu Code Bill moved in the Indian Parliament had tried to remedy all the defects in the existing Hindu laws, customs and practices. But it was unfortunate that there was so much of opposition from Hindus, and paradoxically enough from women also, both inside and outside the Parliament. Hence the Bill has been split up and the Hindu Marriage Act passed recently has rectified only some of the more glaring evils. Polygamy has been prohibited and divorce can be obtained by either party on certain grounds. *Stridhana* system is prevalent among certain sections of Hindus and Christians. *Stridhana* is the property given to the bride at the time of marriage and over which she has absolute power.

Muslim women cannot have more than one husband at a time, while the men can have as many as four wives. A husband can repudiate his wife at his will. The father is the guardian of the children. According to Christian laws neither polygamy nor polyandry is permitted. The practice of divorce is disallowed by some churches and discouraged by others.

**CONCLUSION :** Social legislation is such an extensive field and what has been attempted here is merely to indicate some of the important landmarks in this field. At best, social legislation is an idealistic remedy. At its worst, it is not worth the paper on which it is printed. Just as the proof of the pudding is in its eating, the success of social legislation is in its enforcement. Social consciousness has to be stirred up and the society as a whole should become active participants in successfully implementing legislation. Only then will social legislation become the means of ensuring justice to all people and specially to the weaker and socially backward sections of the society.

## CHAPTER XVIII

### MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK

Medical social work has developed as an important field of professional social work, and as an important landmark in the progress of medical care. The professions of social work and medicine have gained greatly, on account of their close collaboration in tackling the problem of ill-health from its curative and preventive aspects, with due emphasis on the physical as well as emotional factors.

**ROLE OF THE MEDICAL SOCIAL WORKER :** With the over-crowding of the hospitals and the general prevalence of diseases in the countryside, the medical profession is finding it difficult to cope with the heavy demand for its services. In such a situation, the doctors in general, cannot afford to spend much time with each of the patients. They have to be satisfied, with what is often an inadequate and incomplete description of the symptoms and the history of the disease. A diagnosis is made on the spot, and a prescription given immediately, after which the doctor attends to the next patient. Scarcely has the doctor the time and disposition to go into the social and emotional background of the patients or to pay much attention to them as individuals. His is an exclusively medical interpretation of the disease situation; and he proceeds to mend the structural defect or functional disorder, all from a physical point of view. It is such a background that calls for the services of the medical social worker, whose work it is to go into the personal background of the patient and study the social and emotional implications of the disease, and bring them to the notice of the doctor. The medical social worker gives the much-needed personal attention, and deals with the patient, in the first place as a person, and secondly only as a patient. The patient is helped to accept and undergo treatment, and the emotional support and psychological help given by the medical social worker, enables the patient to speed up his

own recovery, by means of active co-operation and participation in the treatment process.

**EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS :** Disease has been commonly understood merely as structural or functional mal-adjustment of the physical organism. Medical treatment on conventional lines, has considered illness merely as a physical phenomenon. Such conventional views on the nature and implications of illness, have been replaced by more scientific and modern views, which emphasize the impact of emotional and social factors in a disease situation. Physical factors are most important, but any approach that takes into account only the physical factors, remains incomplete and inadequate, because it overlooks environmental and personal factors that have a bearing on a person's illness or disease. Illness is as damaging from a physical point of view, as it is disturbing from a psychological point of view. It is the psychological, emotional and environmental factors that are handled by the medical social worker who helps the doctor, to have a better understanding of the patient, which goes a long way in correctly diagnosing and treating the patient. Illness or disease is something very easy to undergo provided it happens to others. It is easy to tell others how one should not at all be worried about such minor ailments, how hospitalisation is all fun, and that one should be very sporting about operations, whether these are going to be successful or not. But the hospital, doctors, operations all these assume strange and bewildering shapes when we are face to face with illness and all the anxieties and worries associated with it. It is these difficulties that call for the services of the medical social workers.

**CASE OF RAMU :** Take the case of Ramu. He is a clerk in a small establishment in the city. The employment conditions are not good but he is braving them all just to be able to send some money to his wife and children in the village. He is obliged to work hard and since it is difficult for him to get leave, he had postponed going to the hospital even though for quite sometime he was having acute pain in the stomach. Well, one day he managed to take leave and went to the hospital. He was sent from one room to another, from one specialist to another, one test followed by another. This went on for a few days and finally the doctor told him that it was really



nothing much to worry and that he had just contracted cancer in the stomach. A few months' treatment and one or more operations should make him alright. Confused and frightened Ramu had a hundred questions in his mind. Before he could address a few words the doctor had moved away and was busy with another patient. He had come to the hospital hoping to get some pills or a little mixture and thinking that the doctor may prescribe some special tonic or soup for him to regain his vitality. But instead of getting the mixture he finds himself mixed up and instead of drinking some soup he finds himself in the soup.

It is easy to think of patients in general and problems in abstract. But here is a person who has more problems than he can normally deal with. What will happen if he is to be in the hospital for two months. He is not going to get leave for such a long period which means that after he gets out of the hospital—if he does that—he will have to look for a new job. What about sending money to his wife and children? Whether or not to inform the wife and children? If they are informed they will be worried and if no information about him reaches them they will be still more disturbed. It is only an insane person who may remain calm and undisturbed in such a predicament. The medical social worker comes into the scene like a 'lady with the lamp' and throwing the light of understanding, helps to clarify issues, straighten up difficulties and strengthen himself thus helping him in facing the problem before him.

**PSYCHO-SOMATIC APPROACH :** The work of medical social workers have gained greater significance with the present day emphasis on the psycho-somatic nature of illness which in other words, refers to the inter-action and inter-relatedness of psychological and physiological factors in a disease situation. Over-anxiety or excessive worries can land people in ill-health, which in such cases, become symptomatic of the under-current of emotional disturbances of the person. The simplest example of emotional factors upsetting physical functioning is the loss of appetite or physical breakdown, on receipt of some shocking news. The consequences of mental strain or emotional disturbances on the part of the patient, is very obvious. That is why we often hold back bad news from patients. But the patient's own emotional problems and psychological strain, can never be hidden from him. His own thinking and feeling about

his illness is of great significance, and is an important factor affecting the course and success of treatment. Hence what is necessary is to understand this web of emotional entanglement of the patient, and help him face his problems, with courage and determination.

**TEAM WORK :** The role of the physician in respect of the physical illness remains distinct and the medical social worker is not to take over the role of the doctor, nor can the doctor deviate from his medical duties. But what is of significance in a medical social work situation is the co-operation between the doctors and social workers. Even though each one is concentrating in his own field, they are functioning in such a way, as to assist each other. The task of the medical social worker is on the one hand, to help the doctor understand the personal and social background of the patient and help him in the process of treatment. On the other hand he helps the patient to get over his personal and psychological problems, and as a result, speed up the process of recovery. Because of the inter-connection between physical and emotional factors, physical attention and medical care alone cannot always cure illness, just as emotional problems cannot be solved by physical remedies. Both physical and psychological attention is required in most cases of illness, and hence medical social work, which brings together two professions in the service of the suffering humanity, represents the only silver lining in this otherwise cloudy picture. Earlier, the medical profession was not very enthusiastic about medical social workers, and often considered them to be misfits, in what according to them is a purely medical situation and where social workers have nothing to do. But now, they are full of appreciation for the services rendered by the medical social workers.

**SERVICES RENDERED :** The most important of the services rendered by medical social workers, is that they help the patients to realise and use their own capacities, in order to get over personal or social difficulties, so as to regain, and maintain good health. Medical social worker gives to the patients individual attention and personal care, for which they are yearning. The medical viewpoint of the doctor, and the social viewpoint of the social worker, makes lot of difference to the patients. Coming to the hospital, the doctor sees a ward full of patients, while for the medical social worker, it is the

ward where patients X, Y and Z are living. The doctor looks at the chart, while the medical social worker reads from the face and looks into the heart. What worries the doctor is only the broken ribs or punctured muscles of the patients, while the medical social worker is also concerned about the broken homes and shattered ambitions of the patients. Thus, medical social workers have been greatly responsible for developing an integrated view of illness in general, and the patient as a person.

**HELPING THE PATIENT :** A good many of the patients have lot of fears and anxieties about the course and result of treatment. Their fears may look unreal and unreasonable to others, but to them, they are very real. Some patients react violently to some of the medical recommendations. The most common instance is that of patients refusing to undergo even very minor operations. It is the task of medical social workers, to talk to such patients, gain their confidence, and slowly convince them about the need for, and benefits of, such and such an operation or such and such a course of treatment, so that they are psychologically prepared for the same. Operations are neither advisable nor useful, if patients vehemently object to the same, and such a course may lead to serious complications. The doctor has no more time than to give the prescription, and it is the task of medical social workers to explain and interpret the medical recommendations and psychologically prepare them for the kind of treatment or operation that is necessary. Medical social workers help the patients, to develop confidence in the doctor, and faith in the medicine, both of which are necessary pre-requisites for successful treatment. The patients should be helped to develop a cheerful and hopeful attitude, because a dejected or despondent state will further accentuate pathological problems. They have to be helped to accept what is inevitable and look forward to better times. They should be helped to work out the necessary adjustments and make the necessary arrangements, which would help them to undergo the treatment with courage and confidence. The acceptance and understanding given by the medical social worker relieves the patients and the thought that there is some one else also sharing their thoughts and feelings, will be a source of strength to them.

**ASSISTING THE FAMILY :** It is not the patients alone who need

assistance and guidance. The family members have to be helped, so that they also actively participate and fully co-operate in the work of curing the patients. Instead of getting upset and nervous on account of the patients and their illness, the family members should assist the patients, by giving material and psychological help, when and where required. As a corollary to this, the patients should be helped not to worry too much about family members or family matters. This is, thus, a two-way process. Also, where medical precautions such as vaccinations or inoculations are called for, the family members should be directed to undergo the same. If there is any misunderstanding between the patient and the members of his family, that has to be removed. If the family members are in financial difficulties on account of the earning member having fallen ill, ways and means have to be devised in order to give, material assistance to them. If the family members are far away and if the patients so desire, they should be helped to get in touch with them directly or by correspondence. The medical social workers who render all these services, thus become a very useful bridge that connects the patient and his family.

**WORKING WITH THE COMMUNITY:** Medical social work in community setting arises mainly out of the great need for preventive health measures at the community level. Those who come to the hospital for treatment are a small minority, compared to the great majority of people, who either out of ignorance or negligence, never bother to seek medical advice or treatment. They are a great burden and a potential danger to the community because not merely do they suffer, but they also become instrumental in spreading infection. Fear or reluctance on the part of some, and financial difficulties on the part of others, prevent them from going in for medical treatment. There are a number of health services which are provided free. But very often, a good many do not avail of even these opportunities for some kind of medical attention. Hence medical social workers' main work at the community level, is that of interpreting and implementing the health programmes.

The work of raising the standard of public health in India, has to be undertaken in all earnestness. The fight has to be directed against insanitary and unhygienic living conditions, and the general prevalence of disease, poverty and illiteracy. After the attainment

of independence, public health activities have registered great progress both in respect of coverage and effectiveness. Ample provisions have been made in the Five-Year Plans for health schemes. Anti-Malaria campaign, B. C. G. Vaccination and similar schemes have brought down the incidence of several deadly diseases. But this is just the beginning. Health programmes on curative and preventive lines, have to be drawn up after the personal, environmental and psycho-social aspects of illness and their implications are properly studied.

**EDUCATION AND PERSUASION :** The work of changing the minds and hearts of our people, cannot be successful, if the medical social workers proceed merely on propagandist lines. What is needed is education and persuasion. A friendly approach and a personal touch will go a long way in properly handling the patient and the community. The mass appeal of the platform, the stage and the press has to be utilized. They are useful in order to focus attention on vital problems, but very often, a change of heart in the people may be brought about more through individual contacts and personal appeals. Discussions with individuals and small groups will be very fruitful. They should be helped to develop clean habits and healthy living. That the people do not come forward to use even the available medical facilities, is indeed a great problem. But the greater problem is that medical facilities are either completely absent or thoroughly inadequate in most places. The problems are not very dissimilar in the urban and rural areas, the only difference is that because of insanitary living places and overcrowded slums, and due to the wide disparity between the living conditions of the rich and the poor, these problems appear in urban areas in a more concentrated form. The villages may not be overcrowded in this sense, but rural environments are worse in several respects. Absence of civic sense and social consciousness, is responsible for creating several problems. Any public health programme has to take cognizance of all these factors.

**AFTER-CARE WORK :** After-care work is an important part of the services rendered by the medical social workers, who assist the patients even after their discharge. When the patients are discharged, they are not always their former selves, and need considerable help to get adjusted to the new situations and changed

circumstances they may find in their homes in particular, or the environment in general. Even after discharge, several patients need further medical treatment or periodic medical check-ups, before they can be considered to have been fully restored to normal health. In case of others, restricted or regulated diet may have to be followed for some more time, in which case, both the patient and the family must fully realize the need for strictly adhering to the schedule prescribed. If they have lost their jobs or have been adversely affected on account of illness, the medical social worker seeks the assistance of persons or agencies able to help them. Follow-up services are also provided by the medical social workers, whose work ends, only after the person has completely regained his health, and has got acclimatized to his new environment.

**PROGRESS IN INDIA :** Medical social work in India is still in its infancy. A number of hospitals and organisations are engaging medical social workers, and the medical profession and the general public have begun to express appreciation for their services. Several Schools of Social Work and other Institutions are offering, training in medical social work. Of course, neither the appreciation for, nor the development of medical social work in India, is as much as they should be. What medical social work is organised, is mostly confined to hospitals and clinics. There are various limitations, such as lack of finances, dearth of trained workers and limited vision on the part of some people who fail to see the benefits of, and the need for, medical social work. If it is bad not to appoint medical social workers where their services are wanted, it is worse to appoint as medical social workers, people who are untrained for the work. The limited progress registered in India in the field of medical social work, should be considered merely as a good beginning. So much remains to be done. Psychiatric social work also has to be fully developed, so that both physical and mental illnesses can be tackled effectively.

## CHAPTER XIX

### PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK

Psychiatric social work has been defined as social work practised in relation to psychiatry. It signifies the use of social work knowledge, skills and methods in the practice of psychiatry which, in its turn, has enriched and enlarged the field of social work by throwing light on psychiatric implications of personal and social complications. In psychiatric social work, social case work and psychiatric services are combined for the purpose of setting right mental or emotional disturbances. Psychiatrically trained doctors and professionally trained social workers work as a team in the hospital or clinical settings in the treatment of mentally disturbed patients.

**CAUSES OF MENTAL ILLNESS :** The causes and nature of mental disorders have been shrouded in mystery, misgivings and misunderstanding. In ancient times it was supposed that evil spirits were at work and in the name of medical treatment, very inhuman treatment was meted out to these unfortunate people in order to drive away the evil spirit, so much so, instead of the evil spirit sometimes it was the innocent spirit of the person that left the body. The eighteenth century saw the beginning of medical attention and more humane treatment of the mentally ill people. This gathered greater momentum in the nineteenth century following studies and discoveries which above all things, highlighted the interrelatedness and interdependence of the mind and body, culminating in Sigmund Freud's theories of the unconscious and his method of psycho-analysis for resolving mental derangements. The overall result of pioneering work and persevering efforts in the study of the nature and cure of mental illness was the conviction that social factors and environmental conditions are as potent as biological, organic and hereditary factors. Hence the treatment has also

to be broadbased and farflung, including, in addition to the administration of medicines, psychological treatment to set right personality and behaviour problems and social treatment for effecting changes in the environment. These developments have broadly led to more humane and scientific treatment and care of the unfortunate victims of mental illness of varying types and intensity.

**SOCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS :** Earlier, far too much emphasis was laid on the biological origins of mental problems and in consequence the treatment was exclusively medical. But in course of time, accumulation of experience and advance of research began gradually to unfold the role of social and psychological factors in the development, if not the actual causation, of mental problems. In so far as mental disturbance represents a mal-functioning, not merely at the personal but also at the social level, it is not difficult to see how the ingredients in the patient's social situation and the impediments in the patient's social functioning and fulfilment have a bearing on the nature and intensity of the problem. Thus, it has become very clear that in addition to medical treatment, social or psychological treatment is called for. The medical man deals with medical aspects while the psychiatric social worker deals with the environment. Just as changes are needed in the patient, changes are called for in the social or environmental conditions. Sometimes mental disorders may be due more to these social or psychological factors such as negative responses and unwelcome reactions emanating from those in his intimate social circle. It is true that personal and physical factors are involved and it is possible that they are further aggravated by what is going on around the person. His responses and reactions may worsen if caught in the whirlpool of emotional and psychological entanglements contributed by social conditions. Some times, as a result of the treatment in the mental hospital the person may be able to balance himself and feel his way to mental stability. But the moment he goes back to the same unfavourable social conditions which had in a way led to or increased his mental illness, the balance he had gained will be lost and the mental equilibrium he had reached will be upset. Such a person will have to be helped to initiate modifications or moderations in relation to his environment. These are areas in which psychiatric social workers make significant contribution.



**NEED FOR PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK:** A sort of division of labour was called for in order to deal with the purely psychiatric aspects and the essentially social factors. In the earlier period when psychiatrists had to function unaided, they rarely had the time or the requisite background to probe into the patient's personal or social history without which it was impossible to get a complete picture of the patient in relation to the problem. In consequence, the diagnosis was very often merely conjectural, limited to the physical symptoms and psychological factors. These were based mostly on hurried examinations confined to the person, and without any understanding of the patient's personal and social background, which had necessarily so much to do with the nature and extent of the problem.

The evolution of psychiatric social work was the result of the awareness about the paramount need to look into the social implications and personal background of the patients, and the need to maintain detailed case records indicating the patient's reaction to treatment over long periods. Thus psychiatric social workers are charged with the responsibility of gathering the social data, examining the social responses and interpreting all these in relation to the main task of reaching meaningful diagnosis and initiating effective treatment.

**ROLE OF THE CASE WORKER:** The need for case work services arises mainly in relation to the individual problems and individual needs of each patient in the mental hospitals and psychiatric clinics. Case work services are increasingly used in order to work out treatment procedures and after-care work for children coming to juvenile courts or adult patients in mental hospitals or mental hygiene clinics. The case work services provide the best means for learning about the socio-economic and environmental background of the patient, in treatment and later in rehabilitation and after-care work, where this kind of information is urgently required by the psychiatrists. In addition to these, case work services are provided in order to stabilise and strengthen the patient as well as relatives, or to work out necessary adjustments and arrangements among patients and others in his environment. Thus, case work services, and, in some cases, even group therapy, will be found to be very useful in the overall treatment process, supplementing and supporting various psychiatric and medical

treatment procedures which may include shock therapy, psychosurgical operations etc. As in medical social work, the psychiatric social workers explain the nature of the illness and the course of treatment to the members of the family and help both the in-patients and out-patients in reacting favourably to the treatment process.

**AFTER-CARE WORK :** Another aspect of the problem largely flowing from the social origins and social treatment involved in good many psychiatric cases is that of after-care work. In this, the work is that of following up the discharged patients and of enabling them to work out suitable adjustments, with a view to re-establishing themselves in relation to the family circle and the community at large. No kind of institutional care is needed for them, but what they are badly in need of, is some sustaining strength and supporting person specially in the initial period of resuming personal and social functioning. It is equally important that those in the patients' family and social circles make suitable modifications in their own attitude and behaviour towards him. Here, the case work principles and methods are used to help family members to take stock of the reality of the situation in which they are involved, in order to see how best they could recondition the home environment and social atmosphere so as to make it all the more easy for the person to regain confidence and rehabilitate himself emotionally and economically. The members of the family may need support and guidance from the psychiatric social worker, both during the treatment process and later on for after-care work. The reactions and responses on the part of those other than the patient have a great significance because of the stigma that is usually attached to mental illness. It is unfortunate, that of all the diseases to which the human system is subject, mental illness should be stigmatised to such an extent. In fact the stigma attached to mental illness even after it has been cured, is the greatest disservice done to the mental patient, who of all the patients, needs understanding tolerance and acceptance in order to help him maintain the balance he has somehow regained. The discharged patient may be very sensitive and susceptible to any negative responses or unfavourable reactions. Hence the family members should be particularly careful and be prepared to go out of their way to prepare not merely his room and his belongings in a fitting manner, but even more

so, to prepare the minds of the people bound to come into contact with him, so that they give him a happy welcome home. This would enable him to resume his normal functions and activities as if nothing has happened and the sense of security and the feeling of confidence thus gained will enable him to take up the threads of social life where he had left them.

**DATA COLLECTION :** The services rendered by the psychiatric social worker often include a great variety of activities even though practices in each institution may show a great deal of variation. The fairly universal items of services rendered are the following. At the time of admission, the psychiatric social worker gathers preliminary history and accumulates as much information as possible about the patient in relation to his illness and it is such data that gives the psychiatrist an insight into the nature and extent of the illness. Sometimes, admission interviews may be conducted by the psychiatrist and the more involved cases and deep seated maladies alone may be referred to the psychiatric social worker for elaborate enquiry and reporting. It is increasingly recognised that social workers are best equipped by their background to probe into the social, personal and environmental factors even better than psychiatrists who might ordinarily be hard pressed for time.

**HELP TO THE FAMILY :** When the patient is admitted, it is not enough that attention is concentrated on him, but help should also go to the family members whose functioning might have been affected by the transfer of the head or may be, the senior member of the family to the institution. The members of the family must be helped to accept the inevitable facts of the given situation. They must be enabled to make adjustments within the family and work out arrangements outside of the family in order to meet the situation and in this also the social worker plays a helpful and enabling role. Thus the social worker helps the family to make emotional adjustments and material arrangements to tide over the situation. This work has to be deliberately planned and delicately put through especially in view of the stigma that is usually attached to any kind of mental disturbance or illness.

**HELPING THE PATIENT :** While the patient remains hospitalised he may have to be helped to fully utilise the course of treatment

and also assess the patients' strengths and weaknesses in terms of the disease situation and the treatment process, which greatly helps the psychiatrist to give effective treatment. The patient needs help and understanding. He must be enabled to feel secure about himself, his family, his job, his assets etc., because any anxiety regarding these matters will adversely affect the treatment process. In advanced stages of mental illness the patient may not be capable of expressing his anxieties or problems in so many words but still his behaviour pattern will give an indication of his inner conflicts, fears and worries. The patient will have to be continuously helped to steady himself. The problems indicated at the time of admission will have to be explored. All these details are passed on to the psychiatrist in the course of conferences or submitted to him in the form of reports and notes on the patient. In an atmosphere surcharged with hardness and harshness emanating from varying degrees of mental disturbances, the psychiatric social worker is to the patient an oasis of emotional solace and mental comfort especially when visits by relatives or friends are restricted or prohibited. The work of preparation for discharge and arrangements for parole supervision if needed, also falls largely on the shoulders of the psychiatric social workers.

**DEVELOPMENT DURING WAR :** The stresses and strains of active military life leading to emotional disintegration and mental break-downs highlighted the need for psychiatric social work among military men. But it is not true, as some people imagine, that it was the world wars and the problems created by them that accounted for the rise of psychiatric social work which is needed by the civilian population as much as by the military personnel. But it is true that the war had such a tremendous impact on the mental climate of the people and the unparalleled severity, unprecedented strains and abnormal situations of military life resulted in functional break-downs to good many otherwise competent military men and this great challenge of such a situation had to be taken up by psychiatric social work.

At every stage of military life beginning with induction, training and active service and ending up in rehabilitation or discharge, psychiatric social work services were badly needed by a good percentage of the military personnel, thus playing an important role, which among other things, had no small share in the

successful culmination of the war effort. When the ranks of military personnel swelled to such unheard of dimensions, proportionately the number of people experiencing functional break-downs and mental difficulties also increased requiring the extension of psychiatric services. The increased incidence of mental illness among military personnel is due to the peculiar nature of military life so full of suspenses, surprises and suspicions. In civilian life, feelings of fear, anxiety etc. when shared with family or friends, are greatly reduced. But in army life fear complexes and emotional strains are accelerated because one finds all around people who are over-burdened by their own problems and who are not able to relieve those of others. Whether they had volunteered or had been conscripted, they had never really anticipated the nature of life they were to lead or the kind of situations they were to be in. Nor could others have told them because they themselves could not comprehend them. The psychiatric social workers wherever they are employed do their very best to alleviate the impact of stresses and strains and work on the team of psychiatrists etc. in order to set right mental problems and personal break-downs.

**TEAM WORK :** An essential characteristic of the work of a psychiatric social worker is that he functions as a member of a team which includes psychiatrists, psychologists and other clinical or laboratory staff. He functions in such a way as to make it easier for the psychiatrists to arrive at a meaningful diagnosis and initiate effective treatment. He also assists the patient and the family to work out necessary social adjustments. He functions in such a manner and in such degrees, using his professional skills and methods so that others are enabled to function better and more effectively in the treatment situation and rehabilitation work. He helps the psychiatrist, the patient and the members of the family but does not in any manner take over the distinct roles which others are to play. He does not in any way take over the role of the psychiatrist who has ultimate medical responsibility in treatment, nor does he get too much involved in doing things for the patient and the family. He only helps others to play their respective roles effectively without taking over functions which basically should belong to others.

## CHAPTER XX

### SOCIAL EDUCATION

The dawn of freedom has given a new lease of life to the national drive for the liquidation of illiteracy from India. Adult education has spread out as a mass movement, and the concept of adult education has widened itself. Adult education understood merely as literacy classes for adults, has given place to the concept of social education which is a kind of liberal education for the adults, touching upon their social, economic and cultural lives. In social education literacy is not an end in itself, but only a means to an end, a tool to be used for the furtherance of education by the use of the written word. A person's inability to become literate should not prevent him from going through a course of social education.

**NEED FOR ADULT EDUCATION :** A major offensive for the spread of education among the rising generation of children, should not minimise the importance of giving the present adult population, opportunities for re-educating themselves. This is a major problem for India. Hence side by side with providing more and more schools for children, more and more adult education centres also have to be opened.

Social education for adults has obtained a greater significance in the context of our mighty efforts at rebuilding India and rejuvenating Indian life. Our socio-economic structure is undergoing the ordeal of reformation, the pangs of a re-birth. Casting away the memories of a bitter past we are moving on to a better present and a brighter future. This silent revolution will not penetrate the length and breadth of this country, unless the minds of our people are properly prepared for these changes. Social education classes should kindle in them a new fire of enthusiasm, and awaken a keen desire for progress and prosperity. Unless a bold and comprehensive programme of social education makes

the people amenable to these new ideas and changes, our plans and programmes will be washed out, if these are simply dumped on an unwilling and unresponsive people. It is no use trying to blame the people for not accepting something they have never heard about or things they cannot comprehend. Hence social education should precede and not follow these development programmes. The successful working of our infant democracy also calls for social education classes where people get a chance to acquaint themselves with democratic values and have an opportunity for democratic participation.

**OBJECTIVES :** Even though the objectives of social education are usually discussed in general terms, some aspects have been singled out for special emphasis. The border lines of social education are broad enough to admit of several conceptual objectives. Some people look at social education mainly as continuation education, which visualizes education as a continuous process starting from childhood but continuing through adulthood. The emphasis itself may vary and may centre round vocational assistance and cultural or social objectives.

There are others who are of the opinion that social education should be what is called corrective education, seeking to provide during adulthood an opportunity to make amends for the deficiencies or lack of education during childhood. According to some others, social education should be understood mainly as functional group education, which arises out of the adult's need to have a kind of orientation education which will enable him to function better in an employment situation or in relation to the functional group to which he belongs. Workers' education which is now coming into prominence is a reflection of this line of thinking.

There is no complete agreement as to whether the ultimate objective of adult education should be the intellectual growth of the individual or the development of his social qualities. It seems to be better to combine these two objectives because even individual growth and development is controlled and conditioned by his social instincts and experiences.

In countries like U.S.A. adult education is imparted mostly in respect of a particular vocation. In some other countries the emphasis is on a broad cultural approach so as to enrich individual and group life in general and not necessarily restricted to helping

a person in respect of his job. But actually these are only different shades of the same social objective and can usefully be combined. In fact, all these objectives can in varying degrees be integrated into a useful programme of social education keeping in mind the needs, aspirations and educatability of the people coming to these classes.

**EDUCATION FOR LIFE:** Social education covers in a comprehensive way the socio-economic and cultural life of the people. It must touch upon the problems and possible lines of remedies in respect of illiteracy, ill-health, unemployment, untouchability, communalism etc. Social education must be able to stir people's imagination, enlarge their vision, and open their minds so that they will become interested participants in the nation building activities and the social welfare programmes initiated in the country.

The success of social education programmes is not to be measured so much in terms of specific achievements in any field of activity, but rather in terms of the kind of social climate it is able to create and the kind of positive social responses it is able to generate. Social education must be able to enlarge the areas of co-operation and curtail the areas of conflict in the society. It should be able to generate the spirit of co-operation and spread the message of co-operation among all people and usher in an era of co-operative endeavour touching the socio-cultural and economic life of the people. It is education in the widest possible sense of the term, educating the people to face the problems of life, and in bringing about a change in the minds and hearts of people so that they aspire to reach higher levels of living and new ways of life.

**ROLE OF SOCIAL EDUCATION:** The report of the Community Project Administration for the year 1954-55 has graphically described the role of social education which according to it "is to enthuse the rural population and to secure their participation in all the development programmes under the Community Projects such as agriculture, village industries, sanitation, health, communications and other aspects of general village improvement. Other activities organised are literacy, health education, education in citizenship and a programme of follow-up activities with a view to prevent relapse into illiteracy and ignorance.

"Organisation of recreational and cultural activities such as folk



dances, folk dramas, *kathas*, *kirtans*, and *bhajans* is another important aspect of activity programmes. Exhibitions, *kisan melas*, fairs and festivals are organized for propagating development programmes and their progress and to indicate to the common man the role that he has to play in national development.

“In order to start the process of group formation, programmes of youth welfare and child welfare are taken up and physical welfare activities such as games and sports are planned. People are trained with a view to develop leadership. Audio-visual aids like films, film strips, lantern slides, posters, gramophone records etc., are used in furtherance of these activities and community listening sets are established and groups formed for listeners.”

Social education programmes in the Community Projects are drawn up and executed by social education organisers in collaboration with village level workers.

**NEW APPROACH:** The shifting of emphasis from the mechanical and monotonous teaching of the Three Rs, to the provision of an interesting and wholesome educational programme, has revolutionised the concept of adult education. Such a programme includes besides literacy, the teaching of the elements of health and hygiene, socio-economic facts regarding the locality and the country, the rights and duties of citizens etc. Recreational and cultural activities are an integral part of such an educational programme. The adults who come to the classes after a hard day's toil, should have an opportunity for some form of relaxation so as to regain their spirits and refresh their minds. The educational schedule should not be rigid, but should remain flexible and capable of adjustments, in keeping with the needs, interests and background of the people participating in the programmes. The teaching method itself needs to be constantly changed to keep up interest. Pictorial aids and illustrations should be profusely used so as to take away as much of the strain as possible from the process of learning during adulthood.

**HISTORY:** The history of adult education in India is comparatively short and not very encouraging except in more recent times. For a very long time all that was done in this field was due to the initiative of private agencies. But in the absence of a co-ordinated and comprehensive programme, results were not impressive. But gradually systematic thinking began to replace some of the more hazy

notions regarding social education and the annual deliberations of the Indian Adult Education Association provided an opportunity for open discussion. It served as a meeting place for all people interested in the field, a clearing house for information on the subject and a forum for systematic discussion and planning. This association had been mainly responsible for advocating a modern and dynamic approach to social education and for highlighting the need for co-ordination and planning. By submitting a number of memorandums to the Central Government they have been able to secure from the Government, financial and general assistance for the private agencies functioning in this field. The Association had greatly emphasised the need for full time workers in the field of social education and the need for setting up Social Education Boards at the State and Central Government levels for initiating, sustaining and co-ordinating programmes. From 1953 onwards the Union Education Ministry is having a separate section for basic and social education and several states have set up Social Education Departments.

**UNDER THE FIVE YEAR PLANS:** But the beginning of a really intensive campaign for the spread of social education was made only when the First Five Year Plan was launched for the planned development of the country's resources. The Community Projects and N. E. S. which followed in quick succession accepted social education as an integral part of its programme. In fact, social education was to set the pace for and accelerate the tempo of national development. But this could not be achieved unless efforts at social education were co-ordinated by setting up a suitable machinery. Apart from starting social education centres, the government has gradually recognised the need for giving financial assistance to such private agencies in the field which can neither expand nor improve their services without such help. The general encouragement for social education and the liberal interpretation of the concept of social education has resulted in the development of a unique and interesting programme of social education which includes a variety of activities. The traditional image of adult education as a dull and monotonous learning process, has been replaced by the formulation of interesting programmes around which the interest of the group is built up. Gradually they are taken through a process of learning, as interesting as the other programmes themselves.

Literacy is important, but it is not more important than giving the people a sense of kinship with their fellowmen, a feeling of fulfilment in doing their duty and a sense of partnership with the Government in bringing about a socio-economic regeneration in the countryside. These cannot wait till all our people become literate and even when literacy is achieved it should be merely for the furtherance of these same objectives with the help of the written word. All possible approaches to the community's mind, and all methods of mass education have to be mobilised. Cultural programmes like *bhajans*, dramas, folk songs and dances, audio-visual programmes like exhibitions, magic-lanterns and filmshows, community programmes like group discussions and debates, orientation programmes pertaining to health, hygiene and civic consciousness should all be integrated into one interesting and comprehensive programme of social education. These programmes should be capable of constant variation, in the light of the development of the members and their changing interests and attitudes. In the rural areas the timing and duration of these classes must be adjusted to the convenience of the farmers, and taking into consideration the periods of heavy and seasonal employment on the farms. If the classes are conducted at times inconvenient to the farmers and in places inaccessible to them, it is no use blaming them if they are irregular or gradually drop off after a time.

**COMMUNITY CENTRES:** Another direction in which steps, have been taken recently is to provide community centres, which become the central arena for various activities, meeting in varying degrees the felt needs of any given community. The community centre is conceived of as a place where the villagers can get together on a common platform, to give expression to their creative abilities and organise recreational and cultural programmes. These community centres are the best places for social education as well. But in fact, even though a large number of such community centres have been set up in recent years, reports about their functioning are not every encouraging. But the social education organisers and teachers attached to Community Projects are doing signal service in the field of social education. But with all this, we cannot claim to have achieved much. We are only feeling our way through.

**JANATHA COLLEGES:** A new experiment in the field of social

education is the starting of *Janatha* Colleges or People's Colleges, modelled on the Folk Schools of Denmark, for the training of village leaders. But these colleges seem to be engaged merely in imparting a type of training which prepares them only for employment in Community Projects. It has been suggested that the *Janatha* Colleges should be quite distinct from the existing educational institutions. Their work should be mainly that of helping people develop civic consciousness, clean and healthy living habits and a democratic outlook, so that when they return to their respective places they would be better equipped to fulfil their roles as citizens of the country and as members and leaders of their community. Such an educational and training programme has to be given if these *Janatha* Colleges are to become the spearhead of a mass movement for the social and intellectual awakening of our people.

**EDUCATIONAL CARAVANS:** Educational caravans have been arranged to visit the countryside occasionally, as part of an intensive drive for social education. These caravans consist of four jeeps fitted with various equipments, the first jeep serving as a mobile stage, second as a travelling library, the third as an exhibition van and the fourth with a film projector for visual education. After organising these programmes in one place, they move on to other places. Adult Education Department of the Jamia Millia in New Delhi is putting out cheap and attractive literature and pictorial charts to help the neo-literates continue their studies either in class or at home. The need for workers' education is also being realised and steps have been taken to formulate a plan for workers' education in our country. The educational schemes included in the Five-Year Plans contemplate continuation classes and social education classes at various levels. Various states have plans to open literacy and social education centres, to impart training for social education workers, to set up libraries and to undertake publication of cheap and suitable literature. Literacy House, Lucknow is doing work in this field.

**STUDENT'S PARTICIPATION:** During vacations students can participate in social education work. It is gratifying to note that a large number of students are already in the field. "Each one, teach one" can be a motto which could inspire them. But whether students are undertaking this work during their spare time or

whether they are doing it as part of their field work, it is best that they attach themselves to any existing agency or government department for social education. Otherwise there will not be continuity of service, because their participation is interrupted by the course of their studies. Hence it is better that instead of setting up centres by students themselves, they lend their services to the existing agencies and help to work better.

The enthusiasm and energy of the students, under proper guidance and direction, can give new life to these classes and a new vigour to these people. When sufficiently large number of people begin to attend, classes should as far as possible, be conducted separately for various age groups because their tastes, talents and aptitudes will greatly differ. The students should assist and not replace the trained and full time workers in the field on whom rests the major responsibility. It is only fair that the students who have the benefit of higher education, should come forward to share the same with people, who for no fault of theirs, were denied such opportunities during childhood. Thus, with the help of social education organisers, students, social workers and others interested in the welfare of the common people in India, social education programmes must be speeded up. Social education should become a powerful instrument for bringing about a change in the outlook of our people, enabling them to adjust to the conditions of modern life, and awaken in them a keen desire for higher standards of living and fuller and richer lives for themselves.

## CHAPTER XXI

### STUDENTS AND SOCIAL WORK

India is at cross roads. We are turning a new leaf in our history. New horizons are opening before us. For the youth of this country, this is a supreme moment, a great opportunity to shape the destiny of the country. The developmental programmes, the nation-building activities and the schemes for social and economic betterment that await implementation, represent a major challenge to the country in general and to the youth in particular. The mighty adventure of re-building our country, the great endeavour of recasting the life of the nation and the great fight against the socio-economic problems confronting the country, cannot gather momentum unless the youth of India come forward to bear the brunt of this national offensive. The re-construction of the country, socially and economically, and the regeneration of our people intellectually and emotionally, can be achieved only with the whole-hearted and enthusiastic participation of the Indian youth, including the students whose youthful enthusiasm and generosity, would go a long way in helping the country to achieve the objective that has been set before it, viz. the social and economic emancipation of the people.

**THE ROLE OF STUDENTS;** It may be argued that the attention of the students should by no means be diverted from their studies or other academic pursuits. It has to be admitted that during their student days their efforts should be concentrated in the academic field without distractions of any kind. But at the same time they cannot close their eyes to what is happening around them on the border lines of their academic frontiers. Nor can they remain silent spectators of the great resurgence and the national awakening which our country is experiencing just now. It is true that they are students, but they are also citizens of the country and consequently

they cannot entirely be absolved of the elementary social obligations they have as citizens. In fact, their responsibilities are greater because they are a privileged section, with advantages of favourable upbringing and higher education. It is to be recalled that at one stage, Gandhiji had permitted the students also to participate in the freedom struggle because, according to him career, position, future or fortune should not stand in the way of doing the duty to one's motherland. This is not to be interpreted as an open invitation to the students to neglect studies and take up social work activities. It is only meant that when and where social work activities can be undertaken by the students without adversely affecting their studies, they should be encouraged to do so. Their main duty is in respect of their studies, but given goodwill and spirit of service, it will be possible for them to devote their spare time and vacations for social service activities. Understood in this way, the participation by the students in social service activities of a constructive nature, is not likely to find any objection either from the educators or administrators.

**ORGANISED ACTIVITIES:** The particular context in which social service activities are being initiated in India, is such that calls for organised activities, at various levels and in various fields. The students, provided they have the time and willingness, are eminently suited to undertake social service activities in a systematic and co-ordinated manner, so as to eradicate socio-economic problems and to promote social welfare. The students whose participation in social welfare activities is restricted by limitations of time and lack of continuity, can compensate them a great deal, by their organisational abilities and enthusiastic participation. Enthusiasm is infectious and the students' enthusiasm and dedication will inspire others also. Thus the students can become instrumental in whipping up the enthusiasm and enlisting the co-operation and participation of the people, which alone can make any social welfare programme really rewarding and beneficial. Proper organisation and efficient co-ordination should be the hall-mark of the work done by students in the field of social work.

**VOLUNTARY WORKERS:** Professional social work has made significant progress in India, but still it has yet to envelop the major part of the field of social welfare in India. There are those who

believe that professional social work should take over the entire field of social welfare in India. This may be considered as an ideal, but it is not at all practicable in the foreseeable future. The field of social welfare in India is so vast and the number of social workers needed is so great, that it is difficult to think of the possibility in any immediate future, of professional social workers taking over the whole field of social welfare. This is not necessary either. There has to be a voluntary sector in social welfare, which should remain complementary and supplementary to the efforts in the professional field. Also, we have to remember that here in India as well as in several other countries, it is voluntary effort which has historically preceded all other types of social work. It has to be gratefully remembered that it was due to the pioneering efforts of the voluntary workers and the social reformers, that we have to-day in our country a large network of social service organisations. These organisations may have their imperfections but the remedy lies in improving their services and streamlining their machinery. Hence, opportunities given to students for voluntary participation in social service activities, will give them inspiration, guidance and the right approach and positive direction for their interested and enlightened participation in social welfare activities. These help the students, who are the future citizens of the country, to develop an awareness about the present day social problems and a determination to contribute their mite in order to solve them.

**SOCIAL SERVICE LEAGUES:** The social service leagues that are being organised in colleges and other educational institutions, are very useful in properly directing the initiative and enthusiasm of the students, to the field of social work. That these leagues are very popular with the students is indicated by the fact that thousands of students are taking active part in the activities of these leagues. It is likely that some of them join these leagues only for the sake of the certificates that are issued at the end, which they believe will give them a better start in life or because participation in social service activities is considered to be an additional qualification—an extra feather in their cap. Still others may join these because of what may be called the 'delirium of action' on account of which they are never happy or at peace with themselves, except when they are very busy with something or the other and for them social service becomes very handy in order to satisfy their urge for some



kind of activity. There are others who indulge in social service activities because they like to go about doing things for others mainly to satisfy their feeling of importance and a sense of superiority, to be of assistance to others. All these are wrong motives and bad view points. The really sustaining motive for social service should be eternal principles and ultimate values, the most important among them being the brotherhood of man. This leads us on to the necessity for a universal partnership in social service as the ultimate expression of our mutual obligations since we belong to one and the same family the family of man. The rights of men are not much to speak of, but more important are the duties of men towards their fellowmen, which is the fountain head of all positive social work activities. Membership of and participation in, social service leagues will be effective and fruitful, only if the members are imbued with a spirit of service, understood as part of one's duties and are guided by some of these eternal truths that shine like the stars, which, guide the generations that come and go.

**SOCIAL SERVICE CAMPS:** Avenues for organised social service activities have now been thrown open to the students. Social service camps provide a golden opportunity for the students to live and function together as a closely knit group, able to know each other and associate themselves in an intimate manner, while engaged in organised social service activities. A number of work camps and social service camps are being organised under the auspices of social work institutions, colleges, social service leagues and organisations such as the *Bharat Sevak Samaj*. A large number of students, voluntary workers and trainees of social work institutions are coming forward to join these camps. Of course there are critics who can see no good in such camps and according to them these ventures mean only waste of time, energy and money. They think only in terms of the time and money spent and the amount of work done during a particular camp. Their vision is blurred by their own prejudices and they refuse to see the intangible yet real benefits obtained by the campers in terms of practical experience, and by the members of the community in terms of particular achievements and changed attitudes. There are others who calculate the expenses of the camp and the amount of work turned out and argue that the same work could have been done at half the expense if they had engaged hired labourers. These criticisms and objections are both

clumsy and ill-founded. It is necessary to examine some of the ideas and ideals that should guide both those who are organising these camps and those who are participating in them.

**GUIDING PRINCIPLES:** The work camps and social service camps are singularly helpful in bringing home to the minds of the participants the dignity of labour, by their participation in certain amount of manual labour. These camps provide a splendid opportunity for people belonging to various strata of society and professing various faiths, to come together on terms of equality and work together in such a way that highlights the concept of the brotherhood of man which again comes from the fatherhood of God. It is a learning process for the campers and a new experience for them, which will widen their horizons and clear up their perspective, thus serving as an important, antidote to the sectarian or parochial views held by some people. But so far as the programme of work is considered, it is important to remember that activities which are organised, should have the support and co-operation of the community which the campers seek to serve. It is not enough to do this and that for the community, but it is very necessary to do these things, along with those people and with their participation. How often it has happened that the energy and enthusiasm of the campers are wasted, because they try to do things for the villages, when the villagers themselves remain passive or remain active critics and full-time spectators of the activities undertaken by the campers. It is a wrong procedure and a bad strategy to attempt to do anything in any place unless it has got the support of most of the people and at least those who have got the time and ability join hands with the campers. The best way to help a community is to help it to help itself, to enable it to solve its own problems. All that others can do is to help and it is wrong to go on doing things for others which creates in them a sense of dependency and a feeling of inferiority. The campers also should know their limitations. They are going to a particular village for the first and perhaps for the last time and just once in the lives of those villagers. With the limitations of a first acquaintance and within a short period of time, it would be foolish to think that even a couple of their problems may be completely solved. Hence, what is important is to make the villagers aware of their problems and slowly take them into confidence and move them on to activity

aimed at solving these problems. The campers should only lend a helping hand and any work undertaken should be on the basis of a partnership between the campers and the community which should join together in this co-operative activity, and which should be continued by the villagers even after the campers have left. Only if the villagers, at least a representative section, contribute their time and labour, only if their own sweat and labour have gone into a particular piece of work, only then will they continue to take sustained interest in that and keep that going even after the campers have left the place. But if something is thrust upon them, they will resent it and later neglect it. For example, if the campers lay a road without the community having any particular interest in it, it will be in disuse and will eventually disappear from the village map. But if the community had felt the need for it and if they had also worked along with the campers in order to make it, they will keep it in order and use it for ever. Hence, more important than doing things is how it is done. It should be the principles of community organisation, discussed in an earlier chapter, that should guide the campers in their work, in which case alone will it be fruitful and capable of yielding good results.

**SOCIO-ECONOMIC SURVEYS:** Another very useful activity the students can engage in, is participation in socio-economic surveys which are intended to bring out facts and figures in respect of socio-economic problems. This helps the students to acquaint themselves with the problems of the community in which they are living and functioning. Since the problems of any community can be properly and clearly understood only against the total socio-economic background of the community concerned, it is necessary for students to move out of their academic field. It will be part of the learning process for these students, to get in touch with people directly, and to get to know their problems personally. Even the study of the right approach and the correct principles to be followed in any kind of social work will have only academic value, unless the same is integrated with some practical experience in which one seeks to try out some of these principles that have been learnt from books. Social surveys either in the nature of a close observation of a locality, or understood as a systematic study of the nature and extent of any particular problem, creates in the person concerned not merely an understanding about the problem but also an

awareness about the possible methods of tackling these. Since social work activities centre round both the curative and the preventive aspects of social problems, social surveys are very useful in finding out the causes of, and solutions for, social problems. Any social work activity started in any area should be on the basis of the felt needs of the people. Social surveys help to bring to light such felt needs and to make arrangements to meet them. Properly conducted social surveys will throw light on the circumstances that lead to the development of these problems. Their findings will be very useful when plans are formulated to tackle these problems. Social surveys of this nature will have an educative value and a liberalising effect on the students who take part in them.

**LIMITATIONS:** There are a number of activities in which the students can participate and render good account of themselves in various fields of social work. In the rural areas, they may take up, with the co-operation and participation of the villagers, the work of cleaning up the villages, laying roads, constructing schools, conducting social education classes or carrying on health propaganda. Reading rooms and libraries, recreation centres and community halls may be set up or they may help the villagers in any kind of work in which they are interested. Because of the educational background of the students, they are best suited to impart learning to others by conducting night schools and adult education centres. In times of emergencies like floods and other calamities, students can come forward in large numbers to participate in relief work. Students' organisations can come forward and help the victims directly or assist other social service agencies or Governmental departments functioning in the area. Collection of funds is a very useful work the students can do. In cities, they can help in cleaning up the slums, in organising sanitation drive, conducting health and hygiene propaganda and night classes or organising cultural activities and film shows, at times and in places suitable to the working class population. These are just a few of the many activities in which the students can make a decisive contribution. But at the same time it has to be remembered that there are several limitations which restrict or limit the participation of the students in social service activities. Limitations of time, is an important factor because only during holidays or vacations, they can devote considerable time for these activities. It is also difficult to give continuity of

service because when the students are busy preparing for examinations, they may not find it possible to continue their services. Students' organisations can directly participate in these activities, but where continuity of service is very much required, it may be best for the students to associate themselves with other social welfare agencies permanently functioning in the area.

We often hear about students in foreign countries earning money by doing part-time jobs, and working their way through colleges. It is an outstanding reflection of our cultural patterns, that even though our students are more in need of such subsidiary income, they should still be coming forward to render yeomen services. It is a good augury for the future that the rising generation of students have taken up the challenge thrown at them, at such a critical time in the life of our old and yet young nation. The economic and social regeneration of our people is the objective which should be borne in mind by all the citizens and it is good that the student population has come forward to do what it can, in carving out a better future for our country.

**NATIONAL SOCIAL SERVICE FOR YOUTH:** In recent times we hear so much about the scheme of national social service. The idea implied in it is that the youth of the country must come forward and make definite contribution towards the building up of the nation. It is a good idea but if the scheme is to be introduced as it is outlined now it will rather be only of disservice to the youth as well as to the country. The idea of compelling all the students to undergo one year of social service before they go for higher education is rather undesirable and impracticable. It may be noted that there is seeming contradiction between what is said earlier in this chapter and what is said now. There is no such contradiction. It was exhorted that students should come forward for such activities and co-operate with agencies such as *Bharath Sevak Samaj* etc. In this case, only people who have interest will come forward and their participation will be useful. But it is quite a different thing to make it compulsory and a sort of conscription the result of which will be that even those genuinely interested in it will be distracted by those who come only because of compulsion. The scheme should be a voluntary one, then alone will it be useful. Otherwise it would be only a sort of concentration camp for one year.

## CHAPTER XXII

### CENTRAL SOCIAL WELFARE BOARD

The establishment of the Central Social Welfare Board in August 1953, is a memorable landmark in the history of social welfare programmes in India. It heralded the opening of a new chapter and a fresh approach with its emphasis on the streamlining of social welfare agency administration in the country, the co-ordination of welfare work undertaken by voluntary and official agencies and the need to give technical and financial assistance to voluntary agencies. The government realised that the numerous problems facing the country in the field of social welfare work could be tackled only with the active co-operation and effective functioning of the voluntary agencies in the field. This in turn, highlighted the need to strengthen the existing social welfare agencies and to develop new programmes. It was also felt that the task of further developing the field of social welfare should as far as possible be left in the hands of voluntary workers whose rich experience and sense of dedication could be utilised profitably. In order to have effective control and co-ordination, the work had to be directed at the national level. The establishment of the Board, was to work for the realisation of these objectives.

**NON-OFFICIAL MEMBERSHIP:** The distinguishing feature of this Board constituted by the government is that the majority of its members are non-officials. The Board consists of the chairman and 12 other members among whom there are five voluntary social workers, one representative each from the Lok Sabha and Rajya Sabha, and one representative each from the Central Ministries of Education, Finance, Health and Community Development and one from the Planning Commission. The large number of voluntary workers in the Board facilitate better understanding of, and greater acceptance by the voluntary social work agencies

which increases the utility and effectiveness of the Board. Though functioning with relative freedom, the Board is answerable to the Parliament and is subject to the rules of the Government of India in matters of finance. The Board is under the Ministry of Education and it is the Minister for Education who answers questions in Parliament on the working of the Board. The financial allocation for the Board is also provided under the head of education. The Central Ministry of Education has laid down the following as the functions of the Board:

- (i) to survey the needs and requirements of social welfare organisations;
- (ii) to evaluate the programmes and projects of the aided agencies;
- (iii) to co-ordinate the assistance given for social welfare activities by the concerned ministries in the Central and State Governments;
- (iv) to promote the setting up of social welfare organisations on voluntary basis in places where such organisations do not exist;
- (v) to provide assistance, wherever necessary to deserving organisations or institutions on terms to be prescribed by the Board.

**FINANCIAL AND TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE:** One of the important functions entrusted to the Board is the provision of financial and technical assistance to voluntary social welfare agencies to support and improve and mainly to extend the agency programmes. Some agencies seem to have a limited and mistaken view that the Board exists only to distribute the grant-in-aid. It has to be realised that the grant-in-aid is not an end in itself but only a means to an end, which is improvement and extension of the agency programme so as to advance the cause of social welfare. Voluntary agencies have been given a great responsibility in the implementation of social welfare programmes. Since many agencies doing creditable work in the field are handicapped by several factors including shortage of funds, it was decided to extend financial and technical assistance to them as a means of sustaining, strengthening and enlarging their programmes.

In the distribution of funds, which has always been limited compared to the great demand for the same, the Board follows among others, the principle that aid should not be given to meet the routine expenses of the agency, but only for the expansion and development of its programmes. Thus the primary duties and responsibilities of voluntary agencies in the day-to-day running of the

institutions remain with them. What the Board proposes to do is only to share the financial burden involved in undertaking to improve or enlarge existing facilities or services. The aid being on the matching basis, it encourages self-help even while providing assistance. Wherever separate financial provision is made under the Five Year Plans or government departments etc. the Board does not extend any aid. Agencies in the field of tribal welfare, labour welfare, youth welfare, family planning etc. are not eligible for aid because separate provision is being made for them.

**PROCEDURE FOR APPLICATION:** Different types of application forms are provided for different categories of institutions. A brochure on the subject deals with the procedure to be followed and conditions to be fulfilled in order to qualify for the grant. Two copies of the application must be forwarded to the State Social Welfare Advisory Boards and one copy direct to the Central Board. On the basis of inspection of agencies and verification of the claims made in the application, a detailed report is presented by the visiting member of the State Board, which forms the basis for discussion and decision on the question of granting of the aid. The Central Board further studies the recommendations of the State Board and also further evidence available about the standing, ability and eligibility and other details pertaining to the concerned institution before the final decision on the grant is taken. It was realised that continuity and assurance of grant is an important factor in the steady progress and planning of the institutions and hence many agencies are now assured of aid for five-year and even ten-year periods subject to certain conditions while others receive grant from year to year. The report of the Chairman of the Central Social Welfare Board at the Eighth Annual conference reveals that there are about 7,500 organisations receiving grant-in-aid, supporting in varying degrees the specific developmental programmes of these agencies.

**SCRUTINY OF APPLICATION:** The inspecting officers of the grants-in-aid section aided by technical assistants and other staff, help in the work of scrutinising and processing of applications. Over a period of time the Central Board has been trying to perfect its system of scrutiny. In the initial stages the Central Board used to receive and take decisions on applications forwarded to them from any part of the country. But with the formation of State Boards,



the applications are scrutinised by the State Boards which know more about these agencies. The applications with their comments and recommendations are then sent to the Central Board. But the final decision as to grant the money or not, how much is to be sanctioned, and whether or not to stipulate any special conditions etc. is to be taken by the Central Board.

In addition to scrutinising and following up the advance copies of applications received at the Central Board from the various agencies, the Inspecting Officers help the agencies which have been sanctioned grants-in-aid. They help them to plan and utilise the money on approved programmes and later check whether the money has been fully utilised within the allotted period and as per conditions laid down. The Inspecting Officers used to work under the administrative supervision of the Secretary but recently it has been decided to have an Administrative Officer (grants) appointed for guiding and co-ordinating the work of Inspecting Officers. Their work is very important because they provide the background information with the help of which alone it is possible to give the right quantum of aid to deserving institutions and help them to utilise the same fully and effectively. A background in financial matters and social welfare work is very much needed in order to make a correct assessment of the financial requirements and social welfare potentialities of an agency. Hence it is that half the number of Inspecting Officers are to have social work background while the others are experience in financial affairs, so that in combination, they may be able to correctly analyse the needs and problems of an agency from the financial as well as social-welfare point of view.

**WELFARE EXTENSION PROJECTS:** In addition to helping voluntary agencies, the Board has directly sponsored a number of welfare programmes for the benefit of various groups of people both in the rural and urban areas. The Welfare Extension Programmes have been organised for the special benefit of women and children in the rural areas. The scheme was originally started by the Central Board for covering as many villages as possible. Later, the Central Board and the Community Development Ministry came to an agreement by which it was decided that the Central Board should start one Welfare Extension Project in each of the new C. D. Blocks, the programmes being so designed as to benefit mainly the women and children.

**URBAN FAMILY WELFARE PROJECTS:** These have been devised mainly for the benefit of lower middle class families in urban areas, in order to provide their women folk with a respectable way of supplementing the limited family income specially in view of the rise in cost of living in the cities. These women would feel it below their dignity to go out for work and the answer to their problem is to engage them profitably in their own households. The guidance and assistance provided by the Board have enabled the setting up of co-operative societies for the production of match boxes etc. Most of the work is done at home where the raw materials are taken and paid for when the finished articles are returned to the centres. In course of time more such projects have been undertaken and these include handloom-cum-production centres, handicrafts training centres etc. For these socio-economic programmes assistance is also available from the Ministries of Industry and Labour. With the assistance of the government departments, the Board expects to provide in this manner employment to 25,000 to 30,000 women towards the end of the Third Plan.

**ADMINISTRATION OF WELFARE PROJECTS:** An officer on special duty is in charge of administering the welfare projects. He is the co-ordinator for these projects spread over the whole country. He visits these projects from time to time and discusses the progress and problems of these with the staff, members of State Boards and Project Implementing Committees and other officials and non-officials concerned. The Project Implementing Committee which consists mostly of non-official women social workers, survey the area in order to find out the felt needs in the community, the nature and activities of any welfare agency functioning in the area, and the kind of programmes which can be started either to supplement or improve the existing services or facilities. The responsibility for starting and administering these projects are with the State Boards which hand over to the Project Implementing Committee whatever grants come from the Central Board on condition that matching contributions are made available. The section on projects at the Central Board deals with all matters and problems arising in the course of implementing these projects, after these have been fully and critically examined before commencement so that the scheme is of real benefit to the people. The officer is helped by Research Officers and Technical Assistants who hold discussions

on difficulties experienced, by arranging for regional or central conferences. These discussions and constant reviews of work help to avoid mistakes and improve services. Grants ranging from Rs. 25,000 to Rs. 50,000 are given by the Central Board for the Construction of Project Centres provided the site is procured by the Project Implementing Committee.

**TRAINING:** The shortage of trained personnel has been holding up the progress of work in many fields. With the implementation of more and more projects, the number of mid-wives, *gram-sevikas* and *dais* required, have increased enormously and more specially after the integration of welfare Extension Projects with C. D. Programmes. The educated young women are not ordinarily prepared to take up these jobs and hence it was felt that mature and experienced women from the villages, even with little or no education, should be trained for such jobs by providing intensive condensed courses of training after which they can become primary school teachers, health visitors, nurses, *gram-sevikas* etc. This task of training is undertaken by the Central Board in collaboration with other training institutions in the country. With about one and a half crores of rupees provided for the purpose, the Board expects to train about 25,000 such women by the end of the Third Plan.

**AFTER-CARE:** The Central Board has been given the responsibility for the implementation and co-ordination of programmes of After-Care and Social and Moral Hygiene. The main task is that of co-ordinating the work done in this field by the different ministries participating in these programmes. The schemes are drawn up by the State Governments with the assistance of the State Boards. The Central Ministries seek the advice of the Central Board before final decisions on these schemes are taken. The main programmes are those for providing homes or shelters, production centres, training facilities, employment opportunities etc.

**FINANCE:** The Administrative Officer, assisted by Superintendents and other staff, is in overall charge of the administrative and financial matters, the rules in these regards being mostly modelled on government rules. Bulk purchases needed are made through government departments. In the disbursement of grants and the finalisation of budgets for State Board or for particular projects, the finance

section looks into all the budgetary and technical matters involved. The bank account with the State Bank of India to which grants made to the Board through the Ministry of Education are credited, is jointly operated by any two of the three officers viz. Chairman, Secretary or Treasurer, no further sanction being needed for spending the money. Annual auditing of accounts is done by the Accountant-General, Central Revenues.

**INFORMATION AND PUBLICITY:** The information officer is in charge of information and publicity work. He prepares special features, press releases, handouts etc. in order to give publicity to the work carried on by the Central Board and the achievements of its many projects and the progress of the many agencies receiving assistance from it. Exhibitions, documentary films and other mass media are being used to publicise and popularise the work of the Board and its many projects in the field of social welfare.

This section also brings out *Social Welfare*, which is the official organ of the Central Board. An Executive Editor is in charge of the magazine and is assisted by an Assistant Editor who also brings out *Samaj Kalyan* in Hindi, more or less on the pattern of the English magazine. The business side of these and other publications is undertaken by the Publications Division, Government of India.

**ADMINISTRATIVE SET-UP:** The Central Board though generally subject to the administrative and financial procedures laid down for government bodies, still has sufficient freedom and a degree of autonomy. The indications are that very soon it will be raised to the position of a statutory body. The Board has complete freedom in the utilisation of funds allotted to it and to initiate new programmes and create new posts if needed. The chairman is appointed by the Government of India from among the non-official members of the Board. The secretary to the Board is appointed by the Government in consultation with the Chairman. The executive authority is vested with the Chairman who is helped by the Secretary to the Board. The members of the Board are responsible for direction and development of the projects undertaken by the Board in the different zones assigned to each member. They visit institutions receiving aid from the Board and function as the channel of co-ordination of work undertaken by the Central and State

Board by touring the areas and meeting the members of the State Boards, Project Implementing Committees etc. They help to implement and co-ordinate the work in the field.

**STATE SOCIAL WELFARE ADVISORY BOARDS:** From the experience gained in the initial stages when all projects were centrally sponsored and funds were centrally administered, it was clear that the constitution of the State Board in each of the states alone would facilitate a just distribution of grants and faithful implementation of the projects. Only members of State Boards know intimately the agencies and problems in their respective areas and speak with authority and confidence on the standing, requirements and promises of agencies or the nature and extent of welfare needs in their respective states, with their first hand knowledge about these. The effective administration of the numerous schemes undertaken by the Central Board would have been well nigh impossible unless the State Board came forward to share the responsibilities of the Central Board.

Prime Minister Nehru's letter to the Chief Ministers stating the desirability of establishing State Boards made the constitution of the Boards very much easier. The Prime Minister's and the Chairman's letters to the Chief Ministers on the subject made it clear that the main work of such Boards shall be to supervise the welfare projects in their respective areas. They would function as a link between the Central Board and the agencies in the state and initiate a degree of decentralisation in the administration of these projects and bring about greater co-ordination in the larger field of social welfare.

Following the line that the Board's functions are essentially to supplement and not supplant the voluntary agencies, it was felt that the best way to enable these agencies to give maximum co-operation was to maintain the non-official character of the Board by including those who are actually working in these fields, with preference given to women. It was agreed that half the members, preferably non-official women social workers were to be nominated by the Chairman of the Central Board and the rest including officials of Welfare and Developmental Departments and other non-officials were to be nominated by the Chief Ministers. The expenditure on the establishment of the State Board is shared by the State Government and the Central Board on a fifty-fifty basis. The

Chairman of the State Board naturally holds a very important place and should be one who by competence, experience and character is able to win the esteem and co-operation of the officials and non-officials alike.

The main duties of the State Board may be summarised as follows: the Board acts as the channel for the exchange of views and information between the Central and State units of administration. It examines and recommends to the Central Board applications for grants-in-aid, supervises and reports on the working of aided institutions, advises and helps the Central Board in sponsoring and administering welfare programmes in the State and generally co-ordinates welfare work undertaken by various government departments. These manifold duties are carried out by the members of the Board by visiting agencies, interpreting policies, assisting in, and reporting on, the working of aided institutions and working as a *liaison* between various governmental and voluntary agencies and the Central Board.

Each State Board is assisted in its work by one office Secretary. The Inspectors and Welfare Officers attached to State Boards are in charge of inspection and guidance of the aided agencies. The Board also organises seminars and conferences so as to help in the work of evaluating and improving the programmes.

**DISTRICT PROJECT IMPLEMENTING COMMITTEES:** These are constituted for implementing specific Welfare Extension Projects. The members are mostly non-officials including a few officials attached to the welfare departments functioning at the district level. These committees are constituted by the State Boards. The size and pattern of these committees underwent some changes when in 1957 onwards every new Welfare Project was to be located in a Community Development Block consisting of about 100 villages, instead of the original pattern of setting up a project for every 25 villages, not necessarily in areas covered by the C. D. Programmes.

The Project Implementing Committee surveys areas and helps in planning and budgeting the programmes, prepares programmes and keeps constant watch, enlists community participation and contributions, appoints project staff and assigns responsibilities to members, in consultation with the State Board. The chairman is a non-official while the treasurer is usually an official. This committee is linked to the State Board through one of its

members who is specifically in charge of a few projects. The Inspector and Welfare Officer attached to the State Board also provide guidance and assistance to the members of the committee.

The Chief Welfare organiser, *mukhya sevika* and a mid-wife carry out the supervisory functions. In each centre there is one multi-purpose *gram sevika*, one craft instructor and one *dai*, all on full-time basis. The *gram sevikas* are in charge of providing amenities for women and children such as recreational and cultural programmes, social education classes etc. The Craft Instructors teach arts and crafts while the *dais* attend to the maternity cases, elementary medical services, first aid etc. Fifty per cent of the finance is provided by the Central Board, 25 per cent by the State Board and the rest collected locally on the basis of self-help principle.

The successful working of the Board with its multiple functions owes a great deal to the initiative, energy and dedication of the chairman Mrs. Durgabai Deshmukh who has helped the Central Board to pass through its formative stages successfully so as to attain the present status and stature. As revealed in her recent report, the acceptance of the principle of rehabilitation as the final objective of any social welfare programme and the need for trained personnel and purposeful planning and evaluation in order to improve the quality and quantity of the services provided, indicates how much of scientific spirit she has been able to bring into this kind of humanitarian work. Naturally, all those who have been working with her, sharing the burdens and co-operating with her also deserve credit for the successful working of the Central and State Boards. Mrs. Achamma Mathai who has succeeded Mrs. Durgabai Deshmukh as chairman is effectively continuing and enlarging the good work undertaken by the Board.

## CHAPTER XXIII

### U. N. AGENCIES FOR SOCIAL WELFARE

**U. N.'s RECORD:** Whether the United Nations has lived up to the expectations of mankind in the political field is a question which may better be left to posterity to answer, if posterity does survive the present political chaos and a possible atomic flare-up. But the work of the U.N. agencies in the field of social welfare has been real milestones in the progress of humanity, groping out of the darkness and wranglings of the present, towards the dawn of international collaboration as the effective means of dealing with socio-economic, cultural and social welfare problems facing humanity as a whole. The only antidote to war, which the Preamble to the UNESCO constitution says, starts in the minds of men, is the new faith which must fill the hearts and inspire the minds of men that the problems of humanity are the problems of any large family, to be tackled with brotherly feelings. It is the joint responsibility of all to deal with all problems of social welfare, from their own interest because problems of insecurity in any part of the world is the greatest threat to prosperity anywhere else. It is true that in the political field the name United Nations has itself been a misnomer because most nations have been least united, not to mention anything about the efforts at mutual annihilation. But the record of the U.N. in the field of humanitarian and social welfare activities has been most praiseworthy. It is a sort of consolation prize the U.N. has won in spite of its failure in the political field. The barriers of boundaries, nationalities, caste, creed, religion etc., have been broken down at least in the special field of social welfare by the administration of programmes at the international level. A brief account of the various U.N. agencies functioning in the field of social welfare may be given as follows:

**Eco Soco:** The Economic and Social Council established under the



U.N. Charter is in overall charge of schemes for promoting social welfare at the international level. The "economic and social advancement of all peoples" is the objective for which the council functions. This is sought to be achieved by means of international co-operation for tackling interrelated socio-economic problems by means of promoting higher standard of living and higher levels of social and cultural functioning. Co-operation between nations in the field of education and cultural activities is fostered and developed. Various commissions set up under the council is in charge of specific sectors in the general fields of social welfare for the promotion of which the council exists and functions. The Economic and Social Council comes under the General Assembly and also helps in the task of co-ordinating the work of the specialised agencies of the U.N. concerned with social welfare. Under the council comes the various commissions. The social commission, for example, is in overall charge of social service projects including health and welfare projects. There are also other commissions, for example, Commissions on Human Rights, Status of Women, Population etc. The specialised agencies of U.N. such as ILO, UNESCO, WHO, UNICEF etc. carry out in their specific areas, welfare schemes which comes generally under the purview of the Eco Soco which seeks to co-ordinate and direct welfare programmes.

**UNESCO:** The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation is interested generally in the promotion of social science techniques for the furtherance of social welfare. It helps in the exchange of knowledge and views and helps in deepening knowledge by promoting research and in furthering the U.N. objective of ensuring peace and security for mankind.

Founded in the year 1945, the membership which had once stood at 30 has increased to 100 nations at the present time. It has been one of the important specialised agencies of the U.N. which through its constructive programme has contributed in a large measure towards the creation of a climate of co-operation among nations and the fostering of friendly approach among people.

**METHOD OF OPERATION:** The pattern of its work in general is to help member countries to plan and execute educational, scientific and cultural programmes. It sends out every year about 200

international specialists to member countries for the task of educational development specially at the primary and secondary levels. Under its auspices Regional Education Offices and Regional Centres for Research and Training are set up in various regions. Universal primary education or at least rapid extension of primary education is one of the important objectives of the UNESCO. Attention is focused on the special problems facing educators in the Asian and African countries. The programmes in the field of science are based on international requirements and world-wide significance such as the search for augmenting natural resources, exploitation of the seas, and harnessing of science and technology in the service of mankind etc. Another important work undertaken by the UNESCO is the mapping out of areas where earthquakes are probable and in initiating precautionary measures so as to reduce the devastating influences of such natural calamities.

The cultural programmes of the UNESCO cover a wide range of activities in the field of research in humanities, promotion of artistic and literary undertakings, establishment of libraries and museums etc. These programmes seek in general to enrich the cultural life and safeguard cultural patterns in the various regions of the world. In Egypt, for example, some of the treasures and monuments of that region so rich in its cultural legacy and heritage, are likely to be submerged on completion of the mighty Aswan Dam and UNESCO is taking steps to preserve these priceless treasures. In the educational field the UNESCO helps the national book companies and publishing houses in bringing out suitable literature for neo-literates in many of the South East Asian countries. Studies and research on the new developments in the social and economic scenes in various countries is receiving great attention from the UNESCO. Communication programmes are also sought to be developed at the national and international level. With a view to foster understanding and appreciation between peoples, thousands of fellowships are granted for enabling people to study and make use of the progress achieved in these fields in other countries. Some of these are granted directly by the UNESCO and some others in collaboration with other agencies. This helps to develop an atmosphere of understanding and co-operation so necessary for carrying on successfully the multi-faced, differently phased, and multi-purpose programmes of the UNESCO.

India has received great help from UNESCO in promoting

fundamental education, and study and research on community projects. The UNESCO has completed a survey of the development schemes in India. Public library project in India has received substantial assistance from the UNESCO. It also helps in the fields of social education, organisation of seminars, training of youth leaders, establishment of research centres etc.

**UNICEF:** United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund was set up in 1946 to carry on the child welfare services of the UNRRA for refugee rehabilitation which closed up its activities that year. The UNICEF was to operate specially for the welfare and rehabilitation of children in countries affected by the war and also in other backward and underdeveloped countries. During and immediately after the war, the emphasis was on meeting the emergency needs of the children and hence in many countries mass feeding of children and expectant mothers and other health programmes for their benefit were the main activities.

In the past decade the work of the UNICEF has gradually shifted from emergency measures needed during the war and in the immediate post-war period, to child welfare work on a more continuing and permanent basis. Greater emphasis is laid on preventive aspects of medical care in the implementation of health projects. The new battle against diseases and problems in relation to children and mothers specially in the less developed regions of the world is being fought relentlessly by the UNICEF by means of an international programme which is as varied in nature as it is far reaching in its favourable consequences. This type of work is a sort of insurance for the future, because these children are the citizens of tomorrow and it is only healthy childhood that may be expected to blossom into healthy adulthood from the physical, emotional and social points of view.

**MAIN PROGRAMMES:** The countries and territories receiving aid from the UNICEF exceed 100 and most of them also make voluntary contributions. An executive director and an executive board consisting of representatives of 26 nations are in charge of administration. One important aspect of the work of the UNICEF in any area is that instead of independently undertaking any programme, the UNICEF administers its programme always in collaboration with the government departments or through other social work agencies

in the area. It helps the member countries in the establishment of child welfare services and other programmes on a matching basis. It shares the cost and burden of the work with the local agencies or government departments which provide the local supplies and services needed in order to make good use of the equipments and services made available by the UNICEF. The main programmes in support of which assistance is given by the UNICEF include preventive programmes such as anti-tuberculosis and anti-syphilis vaccinations, training of medical personnel at all levels, nutrition programmes and other projects specially designed to protect the health and to ensure the well-being of the children. A major part of the money is spent on the control of diseases and on welfare projects for mothers. During calamities such as famines, floods, earthquakes etc. The UNICEF rushes medicine, food, clothing etc. to the affected areas.

India's contribution to the UNICEF has greatly increased over the years. India has also been receiving very substantial assistance from the UNICEF over a long period of time in the form of medical equipments for health laboratories, hospitals and clinics, training facilities, supply of drugs, insecticides, milk powder etc. The Guindy Institute Laboratory has been equipped by the UNICEF for producing the vaccine required for the nationwide B.C.G. Programme. The UNICEF also assisted, by the supply of equipments and services, in the establishment of the plant at Pimpri for the production of anti-biotics, milk conservation plant at Anand, All-India Institute for Health and Public Hygiene for post-graduate training of medical personnel etc. Supply of tons of skim milk powder for improving the nutritive standards, equipping of thousands of primary and other health centres, extensive facilities for clinical examination at many laboratories, training facilities and loan of experts at many institutions, and supply of hundreds of motor vehicles for the transport of equipments and health personnel have been just a few of the many projects which the UNICEF is undertaking in India with the fullest co-operation of the government and social welfare agencies in India.

**WHO:** The World Health Organisation was established in 1948, following the proposals made at the San Francisco Conference in 1945. The World Health Assembly is held every year, on which every member country is represented and the Executive Board

consists of members elected from the Assembly. The object of the WHO is not just the limited objective of curing some illnesses and preventing other diseases, but the larger objective of the attainment of the highest level of health which has been defined in the preamble to the 'WHO constitution as the "state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity." In pursuance of this ambitious objective, the WHO has been working out programmes in most countries for the control of diseases, development of medical services etc. The special needs of the mother and child, urgent task of providing nutritious diet, imperative need for improving sanitation, the task of campaigning against diseases like malaria, tuberculosis, venereal diseases etc. have all been sought to be provided by the WHO sometimes in association with the UNICEF.

**ASSISTANCE TO INDIA:** In India, various health projects have received a great deal of assistance from the WHO. Since in the post-independence period, the Government of India have launched many national schemes in the field of public health, it has been possible for the WHO to assist in a number of these health projects. In a number of projects the WHO and the UNICEF have been working together, each one providing its services for the speedy implementation of projects in which both the agencies are interested.

In addition to the campaign against diseases, the WHO has also helped in the fields of health education and propaganda, improvement of environmental sanitation, technical training for medical personnel, research into health problems, collection of vital statistics, community development programmes and a number of other projects. The WHO experts have helped greatly in the sound preparation and proper implementation of various programmes.

Two of the projects for which millions of dollars worth of equipments and other assistance have been received by India from WHO are the country-wide programme of malaria eradication and the national tuberculosis programme. Numerous training institutions and medical colleges in India have been provided with WHO professors who have greatly helped in strengthening the training programmes, in the organisation of refresher courses and also by the award of scholarships for advanced studies abroad.

**ILO:** Established in 1919 at the conclusion of the First World War,

the International Labour Organisation has had a very long period of existence and a fairly good record of achievements. The ILO has done so much of preliminary work and preparation of the background by means of its recommendations and conventions. These have helped member countries in the enactment of labour legislation and the implementation of social security measures and in generally creating an atmosphere of labour-management co-operation and a machinery for inter-governmental and inter-agency co-ordination in the implementation of labour welfare programmes. The great progress achieved in regard to the conditions of labour in general and of women and children in particular has been, in no small measure, due to the pioneering efforts and the persevering nature of the work done by the ILO. The realisation of social justice with special reference to the labour field and the establishment of improved labour conditions by means of international collaboration and the promotion of economic and social welfare with special regard to the needs of the working classes have been some of the important objectives for which the ILO has been working all these years.

**CREDITABLE RECORD:** The enduring quality of the work of the ILO has been the result of co-operation between governments, labour and managements, all the three being actively involved in the discussions, policy making and implementation of the conventions and programmes of the ILO. The fact that the governments, labour and managements have come together into an international organisation has greatly helped in developing an integrated approach in regard to the labour problems.

The membership of the ILO now exceeds 80 nations. The annual International Labour Conference provides the platform for discussion and the forum for reaching decisions and drawing up conventions. Each member country is represented at the conference by four delegates, two representing the government and one each representing the labour and the management. The International Labour Office at Geneva houses the permanent secretariat of the organisation. The executive council consists of 20 government representatives and 10 each representing labour and managements. The governments of member countries collaborate in the work of the organisation. The conventions of the International Labour Conference represent the considered opinion of world conscience even

though not binding on the countries unless specifically ratified by member governments. But its moral impact is such that they are generally ratified and followed.

Branch offices are established in many countries including India. The branch offices send reports on matters pertaining to labour and helps the government, employees and employers in regard to problems arising out of the implementation of the recommendations of the ILO and the co-ordination of other programmes. The India Branch sells ILO publications, issues news sheet in English and Hindi and generally renders assistance in promoting schemes for the welfare of working classes.

## CHAPTER XXIV

### FIELD WORK

THE role of field work as an integral part of the training for professional social workers has to be recognised by all concerned so that the best effort is made by the student, the school and the agency to provide such learning opportunities to the student which will have a carry-over effect in his professional career. Field work is not to be considered merely as a traditional adjunct to, but as the very essence of, the training programme at the professional level. As such, it is not to be organised in a haphazard way or gone through in a half-hearted manner. It has to be scientifically planned, vigorously executed and faithfully gone through with dedication and determination.

**INTEGRATION OF THEORY AND PRACTICE:** The principles and methods of social work are not to be taught or learned in the abstract. Social work studies cannot be confined to the intellectual atmosphere and theoretical approach developed in class rooms have to be necessarily augmented by a practical programme of field work. This alone can properly initiate social work trainees into the field of social work, with a realistic and 'down to earth' approach to the many problems to be met with in the field. Social workers can never exist in, or function from, ivory towers; they should be able to move, both physically and mentally, to the people and with the people in the study and treatment of their problems. They must gain insight into the nature and extent of the problems which afflict the people. This will be possible only if the social work trainees are able to move into the field, into the breeding places of these problems and the agencies which seek to remedy these problems as best as they can. What is learned from books about people must be supplemented by what is learned about the people, from the people themselves. Field work thus fills in a great vacuum



which otherwise would have resulted, and corrects the imbalance which would have developed, in the absence of integration between theoretical knowledge and practical outlook and experience.

The nature of social work principles are such that they call for not merely intellectual grasp or theoretical understanding but also emotional acceptance. It is quite one thing to discuss, dwell upon and probe into these concepts and principles in the abstract and quite another to assimilate them and make them part of the person's own thinking and belief, absorbing them into one's scheme of values. For example, it is easy to intellectually accept the principle of acceptance but it may not be so easy to practise the same when face to face with a person who has violated the norms of society and by general description is an undesirable and anti-social element. It is not by study of these principles alone but more so by conscious application of the principle in actual practice, that one is able to follow these principles. Recognition of the dignity of human beings and the respect to be shown to people irrespective of economic conditions or social position is easily grasped in theory but becomes difficult in practice. It is only by means of contacts with people and by consciously trying to apply these and other principles that the use of these principles will gradually become part of the way of approach of the social workers. Field work programmes provide opportunities to the social work trainees to try out and absorb these principles in the course of working with people.

**ADAPTABILITY OF METHODS:** The development of professional social work has resulted in the evolution of a pattern of principles, concepts and objectives which are broadly acceptable and applicable in all countries and at all times. But at the same time even though the generality of these principles and objectives display their universality, their applicability and suitability in different countries and in diverse cultures cannot be taken for granted. It is true that most of them are universally acceptable, based as they are, on common human needs and reactions which are essentially the same everywhere in spite of differences of nationality, language etc. Still, the way in which human problems develop and the manner in which remedies are initiated to tackle these problems must be different in different countries according to the differing socio-economic and cultural conditions. The special applicability and the need to adapt the techniques of social work to the special conditions obtaining

in the country, community or agency must be in the minds of those who organise programmes and those who undergo training in field work. The manner of applying principles and techniques in different settings and in differing degrees must be learned in the course of field work. Applying everything which goes on in foreign countries may not be good and what is needed is to suit these general approaches and universal techniques to the particular task facing us in this country, so as to fit into the particular background of the country and the genius of its people.

Field work brings the students face to face with social problems or personal distress. The theoretical discussion of such problems must necessarily be dove-tailed with practical experience with such problems and the ways and means of handling them. A correct perspective and balanced approach in terms of these problems can be developed only in the course of field work experience. Since the number of local and national social welfare agencies are on the increase, it is necessary to study the set-up and functioning of these agencies. The place of field work as the very core of social work training has been emphasised only to indicate the extent of seriousness, earnestness and enthusiasm that the students should be able to carry into the field work situation. It should not be undertaken by the students in a half-hearted manner merely to conform to the demands of the social work training or to put in, in a mechanical manner, the required number of hours of field work. They must be very responsible and responsive. Even though they are involved in what to them is a learning process, from the point of view of the clients, they are people who are administering programmes. As such, they have to function as responsible members of the profession. Dealing with people and their problems is no easy task and they must undertake the field work with diligence and dedication. They should not become irresponsible as to monkey with people's problems or play with the future of the clients.

**FIELD WORK PRACTICES:** Different schools of social work have developed their own programmes of field work depending upon the kind of agencies and opportunities available in the area and the differences in curricula and fields of specialisation. But the broad outlines of field work programmes in most schools of social work are on the following lines. The requirement of putting in about 15 hours of field work per week is compulsory in most schools of

social work, during the two-year period of training. In some schools the field work is carried on in the afternoons of week days while in some others, two days in the week are exclusively set apart for field work. Orientation classes are generally held prior to the commencement of field work in order to initiate the students into the methods and contents of field work. Group meetings and seminars are later conducted to discuss problems and effect improvements in field work programmes.

**AGENCY VISITS:** It is the practice of many schools of social work to begin the field work programme by organising a series of visits to social welfare agencies in the area. This is particularly useful to those students who never had an opportunity to visit similar agencies. Such visits will give to the students concrete instances of social welfare programmes. During these visits they study the objectives of the agency, administration of programmes, sources of finance, areas of strength and weakness etc., and get a total picture of the institutions. This will particularly be helpful because some of these students are likely to be placed for field work in these agencies and this prior study and contact is very useful.

Whether in the course of such visits or during educational tours, the students should remember that they are neither, sightseers nor over-seers. They are going into the agencies by the kind courtesy of the agency personnel to study the working of these agencies as they are, and not as they should be. They should be able to learn by listening to people and observing closely, but remember that their job is not that of inspectors, critics or advisers. If suggestions are asked for, realistic and practical ones may be given. It must be remembered that many of these agencies are functioning under various kinds of limitations and the visitor may be disappointed if one expects to find ideal conditions in all of them. The questions put to the agency personnel should be simple and straightforward and only to elicit needed information. They should not be cynical in approach or critical in tone. Well written and comprehensive reports on these visits will indicate how much one has been able to learn as a result of these visits. The agency visits will enlarge the breadth of their vision while report writing will develop the facility of expression.

**PLACEMENT:** Field work placement in the first year is generally

intended to provide learning opportunities for students in the practice of basic social work techniques such as case work, group work and community organisation. Field work manuals or outlines prepared by each school for use in the various fields help to guide the students, who are also individually supervised by faculty supervisors. The students get opportunities depending upon their preference and the existence of sufficient number of agencies, to gain experience in one or more of these methods. In the second year students are placed for field work, as far as possible, in the area of their specialisation or special interest. Field work at this stage involves the students in a detailed study of the structural and functional set up of the agency and learning experience wherever practicable in the administration of the agency programmes. The extent of learning opportunity naturally depends upon the opportunities available in the agency and the goodwill of the agency personnel. In some cases they have no opportunity other than to copy down information from official records, whereas in some others the students actively participate and function as part of the agency. The fields of specialisation are usually labour welfare, rural welfare, correctional administration, tribal welfare, family and child welfare, psychiatric social work etc.

Those who are in charge of placing students for field work will find it extremely difficult to be able to satisfy all students with regard to the field in which they are to be placed and the particular agency in which to work. The anxiety of the students to be placed in such fields which they believe to be better than others, and in such agencies which have been described to them by their seniors or friends as "good" agencies is understandable. But at the same time they must be helped to understand that the success of their field work does not depend entirely on their opportunity to work in any one field or agency, but in their ability to learn to use the social work principles and techniques in any setting and in any agency. The purpose of field work is to generally acquaint them with the practice of social work principles and skills. Oftentimes what is more significant, specially while moving into any of the many fields of social work after the training, is not so much the special and limited experience in any one agency but rather the general and cumulative effect of a varied programme of field work in a variety of agencies. This is so because in India, unlike in U.S.A.

and U.K. the special conditions in and needs of our country seem to require the general practitioner in social work rather than the specialist in case work, group work etc.

**LABOUR PLACEMENTS:** One of the most coveted agencies for field work among the majority of students is the factory. In schools of social work where specialisations are offered, maximum number opt for labour welfare. Thus both in the course and field work, there is a great rush of students for labour specialisation. This is understandable in India because labour field is an expanding one with increasing job opportunities. This will be confusing to those in other countries who believe that labour is not really a field of social work and that the practice of social work as such in a factory is more ideal than practicable. But we in India have come to accept labour as a field of social work and the government has given a statutory stamp on this approach by making the appointment of labour welfare officers compulsory and also by requiring them to have a degree or diploma in social work from a recognised institution or university. But those who clamour for labour specialisation or field work should also note that the government has extended equal recognition to those who have a degree or diploma in social work with no specialisation in labour, those who have no social work training but rather a general training in labour field, and also those who had in addition to social work courses, a specialised course in labour.

Nor is it required that those who are to enter labour field must necessarily have their field work and project report in the field of labour. Studies on those passing out of various schools of social work entering various fields of social work, have revealed that their present job is not necessarily in their field of specialisation, if they had any. It is necessary to drive home to the present and prospective students, that so far as field work is concerned, they are going to deal with the same set of problems viz. human problems, even though the agency setting might differ. The particular manner in which these problems might express themselves may vary, necessitating minor changes in approach to problems and the application of principles and techniques.

**BLOCK PLACEMENT:** It is now generally accepted that a two-year

period of training cannot necessarily equip the students with a complete understanding and full mastery of the many fields, in any one of which they may be called upon to work. The beginning practitioner must remain a student and will naturally learn so much in the course of the work itself. Thus the emphasis must be on methods and approach in general which may be applied in any field. But at the same time it has been realised that specialised training in the field of one's choice is to be encouraged to the extent such keen interest and facilities are available. It has been noted in this connection, that very often a gap does exist between what the student or the school desired to have in the form of practical experience in any one field, and the limited experience one was able to get in the course of regular field work placements. In order to bridge the gap between these, many schools of social work have now provided for what is known as Block Placement in the field of specialisation or special interest to the student. This comes after the two-year courses, including concurrent field work and after the examinations are over, and lasts from one to three months. No marks or grades are awarded for this but without the production of a certificate from the head of the agency to the effect that one has gone through this training course satisfactorily, the degrees or diplomas are not to be awarded. The idea is that undisturbed by the prospect of tests, examinations etc. and uninterrupted by the routine of classes and other assignments one can concentrate on the work in the agency. This ensures continuity in the learning experience while in field work which is undertaken only on a certain number of days in a week, is necessarily not continuous. The Block Placement provides a very useful period of apprenticeship to the trainees before they enter the field of social work as full-fledged social workers.

**CAMPS AND STUDY TOURS:** Some schools hold a three to five-day camp, the main purpose of which is to provide an experience in group living and participation. It gives learning opportunities in democratic management under the guidance of one or two members of the faculty, and enables students to assume full responsibility for the organisation of the various activities, in the planning and execution of which students are given full opportunities. This can be a very useful experience for those who had never participated in such group activities and provides an opportunity to

practise group work principles among themselves. But some schools consider that these objectives can be realised in the course of the general and extra-curricular activities of the school.

Study tours mostly in the second year is an integral part of the training programme in most schools of social work in India. This also provides an opportunity for group participation and planning and specially helps to widen the mental horizon of the students and to acquaint them with the problems of social welfare and programmes of social welfare agencies in other parts of the country. Seeing things is the best way of learning and the study tours help the social workers to grow out of narrow regional considerations and develop a national approach and get an overall picture of the field of social welfare in India. The amount of time, energy and resources that must necessarily go into the planning and execution of study tours are tremendous. But the educational components and learning opportunities in such tours are well worth the trouble and expenses that necessarily go into it.

**SUPERVISION:** Effective and helpful supervision is a very important factor contributing towards the success of field work programmes. But to many students of social work in India, the personalised supervision is a source of headache and to a few nearly a nightmare. This is partly because of the background of many students on whom attention was never focused earlier. Often their nearest contacts with the teachers were usually from the last benches in the class room. They were awarded marks or promoted to higher classes in the most secretive and anonymous manner. But in the school of social work the student can no more hide himself in a crowd of students, nor can he protect himself from the searching eyes of the teacher by sitting behind a particularly fat class-mate. Here, he is not known as a number such and such, but a person so and so. He is known intimately, watched carefully, and helped directly. Thus, coming out into the limelight is very embarrassing to many. To be involved in an individual supervisory session, in which he and somebody else are looking closely and intimately at his work is not so easy for a beginner.

These difficulties are there in good many cases and the helpful and supporting role of the supervisor is to help such students to note these problems and gradually help them out of these difficulties. Some supervisors may have too high expectations of the

students and may forget that he should also begin where the student is. Sometimes when they throw light on how the client has to be made comfortable, accepted without reservations and helped continuously, they may forget that the students also deserve to get these from the supervisors. Since many are the fields in which students are placed for field work, some supervisors will not be able to help effectively or guide properly if they themselves do not have sufficient experience in the field and may not be able to fully appreciate the difficulties which the students face. Supervision is essentially a helping and enabling process. It should not be merely a mechanical and monotonous probing into the work as is done by an inspector, but a process of sharing the facts and situations between the two, as a result of which the student is gradually able to develop and function effectively on his own.

Some students tend to lean too much on the supervisors for suggestions etc. and at every stage would like to be told what to do next. But if there is too much of spoon-feeding by the supervisor, the student will not get a chance to develop initiative or independent thinking and action. On the other hand to think that the student knows everything and needs no guidance is also an extremely wrong position to take. The role of the supervisor is to educate the student according to his pace, building on his areas of strength and using the greater experience and competence he himself has in the field. He should be able to create a sense of trust and confidence in the student towards the supervisor so that the student feels free to communicate and by the recognition of positive factors should be able to eliminate the weak points in his functioning.

If high standards of performance and conduct are to be expected from the students still higher standards in supervision is also called for. In the course of supervision the supervisor should be able to imbibe the qualities of regularity, sincerity, honesty, uprightness etc., and should be able inculcate these sovereign qualities in the students not by preaching but by his own example. Some students may think that the quantity of field work is more important. But what is really important is quality, how a thing is done being more important than what is done. The most significant thing is the regularity and responsibility, sincerity and seriousness, brought to bear on the field work. For example, some one might ask : " Why this great fuss about submitting the field work report exactly on



time, what if I submit it any day I finish writing." On the one hand without regular reports conferences and discussions will be meaningless. Even more important than this is the fact that such insistence is to enable the students to form regular habits and systematic ways of working. By submitting the field work reports exactly on time, week after week and month after month, it becomes a habit with him, and in any job situation he will be able carry on the work as regularly and systematically as he had done during his training in social work.

**FIELD WORK REPORTS:** Well maintained field work records enable the student and the supervisor to objectively review the work done and to improve the same in future. Acceptance of objective criticism and constructive suggestions and the ability to bring about the necessary changes in work and outlook is the required prior condition which will help the student to learn more in the process of supervision. To think that one is above correction is not only incorrect in point of fact, but also inadmissible, in terms of approach. The reports should be honest, clean and clear and bring out the process of work in any setting and faithfully record the factual details, correctly reflecting the areas of success and the difficulties faced. But it has to be admitted that an extent of exaggeration or an element of story telling may creep into the reports of some, even though they are naturally in a very small minority. Sometimes this tendency is due to too high expectations on the part of the supervisors about the professional performance of the students. Having got from a few conferences, the lines of the supervisors' criticism and suggestions, a few of them tend to write reports not as the work actually turned out but more in a manner which is likely to meet with the approval of the supervisor. Cases of totally cooked up and fake reports, which sooner than later will be discovered, are exceptions and even this is no justification for distrusting the students generally and having sort of police inspections. Supervisory visits should not be so much to check whether the students do the work, but rather to see them working and render help or assistance if needed. If in the course of social work training it is not possible to inculcate honesty and uprightness in the students, that training is not worth anything. But honesty cannot be expected if honesty is penalised as when an honest effort and report in field work is criticised while a

dishonest one is praised. But here also dishonesty will never pay in the long run. The outlines provided, the orientation classes and supervisory guidance should help the students to write honest and systematic reports.

**EVALUATION:** Field work is subjected to a continuous process of evaluation in the course of conferences between the supervisors and students. But towards the end of each term or academic year the students and the respective supervisors jointly evaluate the total performance of the students in field work and record the same for reference. Both the student and the supervisor must be as objective as possible.

These summary evaluations at the end of the term or year is not likely to lead to any new finding but rather would help to sort out the positive and weak points which must have been observed and discussed in the course of previous conferences. What is needed at this stage is to have a view of the totality of the performance over a period and to assess the same in such a way as to help in the course of next placement or job situation. Even the person who has been functioning well, can do still better if properly helped by objective evaluation and if strengthened by achievements.

Many schools ask the students to write out a self-evaluation report following an outline prepared for the purpose or are encouraged to raise points which will help in evaluating their work. The evaluation is a joint work and the points in the report prepared by the supervisor and the self-evaluation reports or points indicated by the student are jointly discussed and the final form of the report will largely reflect the thinking of both. These are later discussed with the head of the institution and other staff members, who help in finalising the grades or marks. In some schools in addition to individual or group evaluation conferences, a viva voce examination on the field work performance is conducted and the performance in these oral tests and the report of the supervisor forms the basis for the final marks or grades.

The outline developed by the various schools for evaluation are naturally very helpful. But it is very difficult to develop a criteria which will be cent per cent successful. One difficulty is that it is not so easy to divide the persons working into watertight compartments and assess them separately. Even though individual items of performance and relationship are to be looked into, the attention

must necessarily be rather on the total performance and overall functioning over a period of time. The criteria developed in various schools lay down that evaluation of field work must naturally assess the student's personal qualities such as honesty, sincerity, regularity, ability to establish and maintain positive relationship with clients, agency personnel etc., ability to integrate theoretical knowledge with practical work in the field, responsibility in the use of social work skills, success of professional performance and development of professional discipline, ability to work within agency limitations, positive use of supervision, willingness to admit mistakes and learn therefrom and student's overall performance. The evaluation must naturally lay emphasis on the positive and strong points and at the same time should not overlook the weakspots in work and the person of the student.

**AGENCY CO-OPERATION:** The active co-operation of agencies is crucial to the success of field work. It is true that the vast majority of the agencies are very co-operative and do their best to enable and assist social work students to organise field work activities useful to the clients of the agency and to themselves in terms of learning experience. Where field work requirements include the task of initiating students into the theory and practice of agency programme and administration, it is considered by a few of the agency personnel as interruption of their routine schedule of work. But even though it entails some loss of time it must be borne in mind that the service they render is not something which is helpful to the students only, but something which will cumulatively benefit the whole field of social work. The agencies are participating in the development of competent, practical-minded and professionally qualified social workers and the time spent on them is not wasted but well spent in the interest of the development of social work. It is a good investment because in course of time it will yield fruits in terms of effectiveness of social welfare programmes, and the development of a good cadre of social workers, who will be able to help people in distress and groups in difficulties more effectively and efficiently. The students and the authorities of the schools of social work should appreciate the goodwill shown by the agencies and must be very considerate and co-operative so as not to inconvenience them in any way. The details of the field work programmes must be worked out in consultation with the agency personnel and must be gone through

under their guidance and supervision. The faculty supervisor must keep in touch with the agency supervisor so as to help the students to have as much practical experience as possible, keeping in mind the limitations of the agency, if there are any.

## CHAPTER XXV

### SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

**NATURE OF SOCIAL WORK PROFESSION:** The advances made in the field of social work specially in U.S.A. and other Western countries have been very remarkable. The professional requirements in the practice of social work indicated the need for, and initiated programmes, for professional training, the standards attained and maintained in the latter largely contributing to the success of the former. Social work profession is one that functions along with and in support of many other professions and disciplines. Hence the development of the profession in general, and that of professional training in particular, have been conditioned by, and dependent upon, developments in other related fields of human endeavour. The advances made in the study of human psychology in all its aspects have greatly contributed to the insight and understanding social workers have gained into the behaviour of individuals and groups involved in personal or social problems. In the field of medical social work, for example, the social worker functions in such a way that the medical profession is able to discharge its functions more effectively. Social legislation in which social workers are very much interested brings them close to the field of legal matters which also have to be looked into in order to solve the problems facing individuals and groups. Even though in this manner social work profession rubs shoulders with many professions and disciplines and draws from many other sciences, it has its own independent existence. It is not a jumbling together of odd bits from this science or that discipline. In its central philosophy and area of concentration, it represents assimilation of ideas and integration of approaches for the furtherance of social welfare. By slow and steady development over a period of time, social work has justified its claim to be a distinct profession, even though the newness of this development itself has accounted for varying degrees

of resistance, as evidenced by the rather too gradual recognition given to it.

**ORIGIN OF TRAINING:** The controversy as to whether social work fulfils all the conditions in order to have an independent existence as a profession, has mellowed down a great deal in recent times as a result of the remarkable progress made in the mapping out of its field, development of techniques, rationalisation of its services, the streamlining of its organisation and more specially due to the development of social work training programmes and the attainment of professional standards in respect of the same. The need for training for social workers and the consequent need for institutions for purposes of training were felt, in the first instance and in most cases, by social welfare agencies. They realised that a period of training and preparation was essential if they are to successfully discharge the duties entrusted to social workers in each field, even though a good deal of training was implied in the job situation itself, viz. in the art of learning by doing. At first, the methods, contents and duration of training courses were in a fluid state and even the objectives were only very vaguely recognised. Beginning with apprenticeship programmes and orientation courses, the programme of social work training has been developed and improved upon in course of time, the maximum development having taken place in the United States during the past sixty years.

In India, social work is perhaps the youngest of the professions, even though the field of social service is itself one of the oldest. The adequacy of the social services provided in the earlier context was taken for granted for too long a period so that their inadequacies in the modern context were realised only in very recent times. This resulted in the belated realisation of the need for new ways of dealing with even old problems handed down to us by the preceding generations and the new problems created in the field of social welfare. As a result of the interaction between the old and the new worlds, and the fresh challenges and problems contained therein, there was search for a scientific approach and effective means of dealing with these problems. Just as in the case of many other fields and professions we began to look to the West for ideas. Social work profession began to lean heavily on the patterns and institutions developed in the West and specially in the United States. This was inevitable in the initial period and the first school of social

work in India was the Tata Institute of Social Sciences established in 1936. From there on, we have travelled a long way in the field of professional education for social workers and now in all, there are about 25 institutions/universities etc. imparting education in the various fields of social work. Significant and praiseworthy though this development is, progress has not been uniform in this field. It is time to evaluate and assess the achievements in the past quarter of a century and to plan for the standardisation of courses and the attainment of still higher standards in the field of social work education.

**GENERAL PATTERN:** The post-graduate training programmes in the different schools of social work in India show some variation with regard to contents and emphasis, but the broad pattern of the courses provided may be described as follows :

**STUDY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES:** In most schools the first courses seek to provide a certain general background to the trainees in social sciences and to prepare them intellectually and emotionally, prior to being initiated into the theory and practice of social work. The study of social sciences like Sociology, Psychology, Economics, Political and Social Institutions etc. is of great importance because social work practice draws heavily from the fund of knowledge made available as a result of advances made in the study of these social sciences. To understand the problems of an individual it is necessary to understand his functioning or malfunctioning in relation to sociological, psychological and economic factors, all of which act and interact on him and in varying degrees have contributed to the person's problem. Hence a background in these social sciences is important in understanding the totality of the situation in which a person finds himself.

The importance attached to the study of social sciences as a necessary pre-requisite for social work training is indicated by the fact that most schools of social work, at the time of admission, give preference to those who have already studied one or more of these social sciences. But then, only very few would have studied all these social sciences, which have a bearing on social work practice. Further more, those who have graduated with science subjects being completely innocent of these social sciences, the need arises for teaching these social sciences at the first stage of the course,

**METHODS OF SOCIAL WORK:** The course at the next stage consist of the study of the specific methods of social work such as case work, group work, community organisation, social administration and social research. All students take up the study of all these methods and there is not much of specialisation as such, in any of these methods. This is as it should be, because any one functioning in any of the fields of social work, will have at one stage or another opportunities to use the skills involved in other methods of social work, even though due to the nature of the particular functions assigned to one, he may be called upon mostly to use only one of these methods. In the United States, specialisation has been carried very far in regard to methods, so that some of the schools train not social workers in general, but only case workers or group workers. This kind of intensive study in one of the methods may be suitable in view of the definite demand there for such specialists in institutions which frequently advertise for case workers, group workers, etc.

But in India, such specialisation in one method, to the neglect of others, is neither wise nor practicable. The needs and exigencies experienced in India in the field of social welfare are such that can best be catered to not by those specialists in any one method, but by the general practitioners, who would use one or more of these methods, depending upon the situation and the kind of services required. In this context, what is most important to note is that in the practice of any one method, the skills and techniques of other methods will be found to be of much use. In India, the method of community organisation is very significant because of the nation-wide community development programme, and of social administration, due to the great need to properly administer the numerous agencies that exist, and the additional programmes that are being launched. But even while carrying on the duties of community organiser or administrator, one will be called upon at several stages to use case work and group work skills because fundamentally they are engaged in dealing with people who naturally confront them as individuals or in groups. Hence in India, in any case, the wisdom of giving instruction in all the methods with equal emphasis cannot be disputed. But this should not naturally prevent anyone, who by inclination or aptitude or the nature of the requirements of the job in which one is interested, or is very likely to get after training, from making special effort to increase one's skills and competency



in any one method by extra reading, and special application in the theory and practice of one of these methods.

**GENERAL OR SPECIALISATION COURSES:** In the third stage of the training programme and generally during the second year, students specialise in one of the many fields of social work or are given instruction in all the important fields of social work without specialisation in any one. Schools of social work such as Tata, Delhi, Udaipur, etc. after the general courses of study of methods of social work and preparatory courses in social sciences and other aspects of social welfare, also give opportunities for intensive training in any one of the fields such as labour, rural, tribal, correctional etc. Some other schools like Baroda, Madras etc. offer a general course of training which covers all the methods and important fields of social work without particular emphasis on any one. As to which of the two is more suitable to Indian conditions is very difficult to say, precisely because both the types seem to be an answer to expressed needs in particular areas.

The criticism sometimes levelled against the general course is that even though it prepares the students generally to take up jobs in any of the fields of social work, by obliging them to study about many fields, prevents intensive study in any one field, and in this way make them sort of 'Jack of all trades but master of none.'

But this is not as serious a charge as it looks, because even after a specialised course in one of the fields, the fact is that so much will remain to be learned later and specially on the job itself. The general course gives training in the methods, the lessons of which can be fruitfully applied to any particular field in which one is working. One point that must be borne in mind in this connection is that learning process should not be conceived of as something which comes to a full stop at the end of the training, but one that continues through life in general, and on the job in particular. The general course of training seems to be more applicable to Indian conditions and the multiple problems in the field of social welfare. It seems that it is sort of general practitioners of social work that India needs in order to work in any of the many fields, rather than specialists in any one method or field. The employment opportunities in the country for social workers are also in such a fluid state so that it may not be very safe or wise to be specially trained

for one particular field, when one cannot be particularly sure of the field in which he is going to enter. But the aspect of criticism against general training can be minimised, if even while following this type of course, one does on his own, make special effort, and supplement one's reading and intensify practice in any one field in which one is interested or seems likely to enter after the period of training.

With regard to training which in addition to the courses in methods and general preparation in the field, offer intensive coaching in any one of the fields, it has to be recognised, that this development was the result of greater need in certain fields which developed more than others and needed people who had to have a more intensive training and detailed preparation for the kind of work to be done in that particular field. The field to attract maximum number of prospective entrants and to provide more employment opportunities has been the labour field, followed by rural welfare, family and medical social work, correctional administration etc. to a much lesser extent. It was felt that the successful practice of social work in the different settings and ability to discharge the particular requirements of the specific jobs in these different fields require much more than a general preparation, and that more specific and intensive training in one field is necessary to equip one to fully and faithfully discharge the duties arising out of the work in the particular field. This will seem to be convincing to those who feel that a person who likes to, and is likely to get into the field of labour need not be burdened with all the details of the practice of social work in the medical or rural setting or vice versa. But it must also be noted that even with specialisation in any one field they are not excluded from entering any other field because the degree or diploma of schools of social work (other than institutes which give diploma in labour welfare etc.) is invariably a blanket one covering the whole field, and not just in the subject covered in the special paper. Thus, between the general courses and the specialised courses which give intensive training in one field, what may be considered as the difference is only one of degree or emphasis.

**LABOUR SCHOOLS:** In what may be called the Labour Schools, the teaching and training relate particularly to the labour field. Because they deal with only one field naturally they are able to cover more technical details and general information pertaining to this field. But one thing to be noted is that they do not seem to be training

social workers to be placed in the labour field but sort of labour technicians who are very well equipped in terms of knowledge but who do not seem to be very well oriented towards the social work functions inherent in the labour field. This is particularly so because so many of the functions which the labour welfare officers are required to carry out under the government rules, require for their successful functioning, at least a general grounding in the basic approach and methods of social work. Some of these courses include in varying degrees some initiation into social work. These may be made a bit more comprehensive and introduced wherever it is not there, so that they are properly oriented towards the social work methods and approach which have a great deal of applicability in the labour setting.

**UNDERGRADUATE AND SHORT TERM COURSES:** Regarding undergraduate and short term courses in social work, it has to be admitted that by their very nature they cannot be expected to satisfy the professional requirements and even though some of them are very good indeed, they cannot be put on a par with two-year post-graduate training which alone is considered a full and satisfactory training for professional social workers. But in India, where a large number of social workers in charge of agencies have had no kind of training and since they cannot attend full-fledged and full time courses, short term courses are the only means of providing some kind of preparation and training to such a large number of workers who would be able to greatly improve the quality of their work on account of this orientation. Some colleges give optional courses in social service in addition to the regular courses. It may be said that participation in the social service leagues and social service training programmes in the colleges is only for the sake of acquiring one more diploma which might be shown at the time of interviews for jobs etc. But the fact cannot be denied that such objectives are understandable, and that since good many are earnest about their participation and preparation in these courses, they are greatly benefited by these. The graduates coming out of the colleges and going to take up junior positions in the general field of social welfare, will be better off for what little training have been made available to them. It must be remembered that it is only in the field of labour that the governments have named the Institutions whose degrees and diplomas are recognised for purposes of

appointment under the Factories Rules. But to the workers in the larger field of social welfare and specially at lower levels, to give some training, will be better than giving none at all.

The post-graduate training programmes which extends for only one year cannot be considered a very adequate preparation. But this is one point about which differences of opinion prevail. Time element is an important factor. But other factors are also important. In this connection, it may be good to remember that even in U.S.A. for a very long time, one year post-graduate training was considered sufficient. Standardisation should not lead to regimentation. Disparities in the training programmes are inevitable. It exists also in the only field where government has laid down specific qualification viz. Labour Field. Even here, a graduate welfare officer going through the six months' course, and one who takes the one year Diplomas of certain universities and institutions and those who go through the regular two-year courses are all equally eligible as per rules! Here it has to be noted that the government mentions the minimum and not the maximum qualifications.

Social science and social work subjects taught in universities and at the under-graduate and graduate levels, cannot be considered adequate training for social work. The reason is that the level of maturity of the students and difficulty of giving individualised coaching and supervision to the students make these inadequate as a training course in social work. But this kind of initiation into social sciences and social work subjects can be very useful as part of the preparation for social work, provided these graduates go for higher studies and training in social work at the post-graduate level. University education is not planned and developed in any sequence or with any continuity and people seem to choose courses on the spur of the moment. We find science graduates taking up post-graduate studies in other lines leaving all that has been studied so far. This is not always good. Post-graduate training should be as far as possible in line with the subjects in which one has been fairly well grounded. Thus the graduate in social science or social work subjects are better equipped to undertake post-graduate studies in social work.

**WOMEN'S FIELD?** The social work profession in many countries is dominated by women with the result that many consider this mainly

as a feminine profession. Whether the qualities of head and heart of women primarily suit them for this field seem to be a case where much can be said on both sides. But in certain fields of social work, women would seem to fit in more, just as nursing and teaching specially at the lower levels, seem to have been earmarked for women. In the United States the ratio of men and women in the field of social work have averaged 1:6 and 1:9. But in recent times the proportion of men in the field seem to have shown a significant increase. In European countries the preponderance of women in the field is even greater, and many a school of social work go as far as to admit only women! In India, the position is not very clear but the general picture seems to be that women play an important role in the voluntary sector. But the proportion of women admitted to schools of social work or function as professional social workers is not very large. It has been pointed out that in India a good percentage of women who graduate from the schools of social work are virtually lost to the profession, because after marriage, which in India happens sooner than later, they leave the profession. The use, if any, they make of the skills of social work in the home setting is not known. Another reason for the high proportion of men in the schools of social work in India is that training facilities and employment opportunities are more in the field of labour welfare, which is considered mainly as a man's field. It is also due to the fact that at the higher levels in any case, women's education has been of more recent origin and the field of professional social work itself is only just developing.

**SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK AND OTHER  
RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS  
PROVIDING TWO-YEAR  
POST-GRADUATE COURSES IN SOCIAL  
WORK AND/OR LABOUR WELFARE**

*Tata Institute of Social Sciences  
Sion-Trombay Road, Chembur, Bombay-71, 1936*

**DIRECTOR: DR. M. S. GORE**

The only school of social work in India which has celebrated its silver jubilee, the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, imparts two years' post-graduate training leading to the Diploma in Social Service Administration which has been recognised equivalent to the Master's Degree in Social Work awarded by any recognised Indian University.

Basic courses in social sciences and social work are covered in the first year while in the second year the students concentrate on any one of the eight special fields such as Labour Welfare, Family and Child Welfare, Medical and Psychiatric Social Work, Social Research, Urban Community Organisation, Rural Welfare, Tribal Welfare, and Criminology and Correctional Administration.

During the first year, students are placed in different social work agencies for field work and during the second year the field work is arranged in such a manner as to give them intensive training in their respective fields of specialisation. Also project reports based on field research in the area of specialisation are to be submitted.

**SHORT-TERM COURSES:** In addition to the two-year courses the Institute also provides one year training programmes in the field of Social Research, Personnel Psychology, Tribal Welfare, Criminology and Juvenile Delinquency and Correctional Administration.

There are also six months' training programmes in Rural Welfare,

Labour Welfare, Social Welfare, etc. Candidates deputed by Governments, Industries, Social Welfare and statutory organisations are admitted to these courses. Some of these short-term courses have been discontinued.

The detailed Bulletin giving full information about all the courses can be had from the Registrar on cash payment of Rs. 2.50 at the Institute. If the same is to be sent by Registered Book Post Rs. 3.25 may be remitted by M.O.

*Indian Institute of Social Welfare and  
Business Management, Calcutta University  
College Square West, Calcutta-7, West Bengal, 1942.*

DIRECTOR: PROI D. K. SANYAL

In addition to the course in Business Management, the Institute offers one year post-graduate Diploma Course in Social Work (Labour Welfare). Graduates working as Labour Welfare Officers are admitted if they are sponsored by the employers. At the end of the course, examination is held by the Calcutta University which awards the Diploma to successful candidates.

The Institute also provides a two-year post-graduate diploma course in Social Welfare which is open to graduates with a minimum of one year's experience in any one of the fields of social welfare and have been sponsored by employers, social agencies or governments.

Regular study visits are arranged to correctional institutions, social welfare agencies etc. All India Institute of Hygiene and Public Health co-operates with the Institute in its work. At the examination held at the end of the first year, successful candidates are awarded the Institute Diploma in General Social Welfare. Those passing this one and the examination at the end of the second year are awarded the Diploma in Advanced General Social Welfare.

*Bombay Labour Institute,  
Chamalbaugvala Road,  
Parel, Bombay-12, 1947.*

DIRECTOR: DR. B. S. BHIR

The Institute provides training specially in the theory and practice

of labour welfare work and industrial relations. It is recognised by the Bombay University as a post-graduate institution of specialised studies and the two-year course leads to the University Diploma in Labour Welfare.

The Institute functions under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, Government of Maharashtra. Applications should be made on the prescribed forms obtainable on payment of Re. 1 in cash or by M.O. before 31st May. Training is full-time and those in service should guarantee that their duties will not affect their studies. The examinations are held at the end of the two years. In order to pass, each candidate must get minimum of 35 per cent in theory papers, oral examination and practical work and an aggregate of 50 per cent.

The practical work includes observational visits to different industries, Government Labour Departments, Industrial Tribunals, and Courts etc. In addition, there is a two-week study tour covering engineering concerns, mines, plantations etc. and a two-week study tour covering factories, E.S.I. Offices, Welfare Centres etc. in addition to making case studies in the factory and union setting as also supervised field work in textile and non-textile units. The field work experiences are to be recorded in a journal regularly and systematically.

*Institute of Social Sciences,  
Kashi Vidyapith, Varanasi, U.P., 1947.*

HLAD: PROF. R. R. SHASTRI

The Institute provides post-graduate training leading to the degree of Master of Applied Sociology (M.A.S.). The degree is awarded to those who successfully go through the theoretical courses, field work and Block Placement for practical training in any approved agency. In addition to the courses in the methods of social work and other facets of social work, specialised courses are also available. Specialised courses may be offered in the following fields: (i) Family and Child Welfare, (ii) Industrial Relations and Labour Welfare, (iii) Correctional Administration and (iv) Rural Community Development. Admission and hostel accommodation are available to men and women. The medium of instruction is Hindi.



*Delhi School of Social Work,  
3, University Road, Delhi-6, 1947.*

PRINCIPAL: MR. S. N. RANADI

The Delhi School of Social Work is a constituent college of the Delhi University which maintains it as a post-graduate Institution. Successful candidates are awarded the degree of Master of Arts in Social Work. Graduates of recognised Universities, both men and women, are admitted provided they have secured a minimum of 50 per cent marks in the aggregate or a minimum of 50 per cent in social science subjects. Candidates should preferably be between the ages of 21 and 35. Admission is limited to 40 students. Application forms may be had on payment of Rs. 2 and 30th June is the last date for the receipt of applications. The men students will be accommodated in the University Hostels while the women can stay at the school premises.

The course is divided into: (i) Introduction to social sciences; (ii) Methods of social work and (iii) Specialisation courses in any one of the fields such as Labour Welfare and Personnel Management, Rural Welfare, Medical Social Work and Institutional and After-Care Services. In order to secure a pass, a student must get 25 per cent in each paper and 50 per cent in the aggregate in theory papers and 40 per cent in field work. Those getting above 50 per cent and 60 per cent marks will be placed respectively in the II and I Divisions. All must attend two-thirds of the lectures, put in the necessary period of field work and complete a project study on a selected topic.

*Department of Labour and Social Welfare,  
University of Patna, Patna-1, Bihar, 1948.*

HEAD: DR. G. P. SINHA

The University Department of Labour and Social Welfare conducts two-year post-graduate course in Labour Welfare leading to the M.A. Degree of the Patna University. There is provision to admit about 35 students and some seats are reserved for Scheduled Castes. Intensive practical training extends for about four months. The study tour lasts about four weeks. Graduates in Arts,

Commerce etc. may apply before 15th August on the prescribed application forms which may be had from the Department.

*Department of Sociology and Social Welfare,  
Lucknow University, Lucknow, U.P., 1949.*

HEAD: MR. SUSIIL CHANDRA

Admission to the post-graduate degree course in social work is given preferably to graduates in social work or other social sciences. The course for the M.S.W. Degree of the University includes Labour Relations and Personnel Management, Rural Welfare and Community Development, and Correctional Administration.

A course in social work is given at the graduate level, whereby students in the graduate classes can opt for social work as one of their subjects for their degree courses.

A limited number of candidates holding Master's Degree in social work are admitted to do research in social work field, leading to the Ph.D. Degree.

*Xavier Labour Relations Institute,  
Jamshedpur, West Bengal, 1949.*

The Institute organises research in industrial relations and conducts two-year post-graduate courses in the field of industrial relations and social welfare. The Institute prepares students for the M.A. Degree of the University of Ranchi in Labour and Social Welfare. In addition to this, the Institute conducts an honours post-graduate diploma course in social welfare, which is recognised by the Government of India and most of the State Governments for purposes of appointment as Labour Officers under the Government rules.

*Faculty of Social Work,  
M.S. University of Baroda, Baroda-2, Gujarat, 1950.*

DEAN: PROF G. G. DADLANI

The Faculty of Social Work of the Maharaja Sayaji Rao University of Baroda imparts professional training in Social Work leading

to the M.S.W. Degree of the University. Men and women students between 21 and 35 preferably knowing Gujrathi, Marathi or Hindi are admitted and given accommodation in the Halls of Residence in the University Campus. Preference is given to graduates in Economics, Sociology, Psychology and other social sciences. The application forms may be had on request and candidates called to appear for interview and other tests will have to do so at their own expense.

All students will do field work for 15 hours per week and put in 80 per cent attendance every term. The marks awarded at terminal and other examinations will be counted together for pass. Students will have to successfully complete a research project and get pass marks in the final viva voce examination. The course is general and there is no specialisation in any subject.

*Madras School of Social Work, 1, Jarrets Gardens,  
Casa Major Road, Egmore, Madras-8, 1952.*

DIRECTOR: MR. K. N. GEORGE

The school conducts two-year post-graduate course leading to the Diploma in Social Service Administration. The School is run under the auspices of the Madras State Branch of the Indian Conference of Social Work. The School imparts the general type of social work training, including all the social work methods and covering most important fields of social work, without specialisation in any. The first courses include grounding in social sciences, human growth and behaviour and history of social work etc. leading on to instruction in the methods and fields of social work. Application forms may be had on payment of Rs. 1.50 p. and applications should reach before June 30.

*University School of Social Sciences,  
Gujarat University, Ahmedabad-9, Gujerat.*

DIRECTOR: PROF. B. R. SHENOY

The school offers a two-year post-graduate course leading to the University Diploma in Labour Welfare. The first of the four terms into which the two academic terms are divided, is devoted to

lectures while in the second and third, in addition to classes, the students get facilities for observation and training in the various institutions in the labour field. During the last term the students got intensive apprenticeship training in factories under the supervision of Labour Welfare Officers.

The examination in ten papers comes at the end of the two-year course. The field work journal and viva voce examination also carry 100 marks each. The theory papers each carrying 100 marks include Labour Economics and Statistics, Production and Wages, Social and Industrial Psychology, Labour Movement, Industrial Relations, Personnel Management, Labour Welfare, Labour Legislation etc.

The Diploma is recognised by the Government of Gujerat and Maharashtra etc., for purposes of appointment as Labour Welfare Officers as per government rules.

*Institute of Social Sciences,  
Agra University, Agra, U.P., 1955.*

DIRECTOR: DR. R. N. SAXENA

The Institute which is also a research centre in social sciences, imparts professional education in social work. Graduates in social sciences are admitted to the course. The successful candidates are awarded the degree of Master of Social Work by the Agra University. Block Field work is to be put in and project reports are to be submitted. For the M.A. previous examination five subjects are offered. In the second year specialisation courses may be offered in one of the fields such as Labour Welfare, Rural Welfare, Family and Child Welfare, Medical Social Work. Criminology etc. Hostel facilities are available.

*School of Social Work,  
Nirmala Niketan, 38, New Marine Lines,  
Bombay-1, 1955.*

DIRECTOR: MISS DOROTHY M. BAKER

The school of social work was established in 1955 under the Institute of Social Service. The under-graduate training programme

with which the institute started has been subsequently changed into the post-graduate course from 1959 onwards. Admission is open only to women. Hostel facilities are provided. Requests for accommodation should be made to Hostel Superintendent, Nirmala Niketan.

The course provided is general and there is no specialisation in any particular field or method. The course covers all the important fields and methods of social work. The two-year course consisting of class-room instruction, field work and research project leads to the Diploma in Social Work offered by the school.

*Department of Sociology and Social Work,  
University College of Arts and Commerce,  
Andhra University, Waltair, A.P., 1957.*

HEAD: DR. M. V. MOORTHY

The post-graduate training course in social work leads to the M.A. Degree in social work of the Andhra University. In the first year, social science courses and methods and principles of social work etc. are covered. In the second year the student can have a specialised course either in Labour Welfare and Personnel Management or Rural Welfare. The afternoons are set apart for field work in the various social work agencies. A Research Project will have to be submitted. There will also be viva voce examination. There is provision to admit 30 candidates each year. A study tour is also organised during the final year.

*Xavier Institute of Social Service,  
St. Xavier's College, Ranchi, Bihar.*

Both men and women are admitted to the two-year post-graduate training course in social work conducted by the Institute. Graduates preferably in social sciences are eligible. Those already in employment wanting to perfect themselves in the theory and practice of social work are preferred due to their greater maturity and experience. For their convenience classes are held in the evenings. Limited hostel accommodation is available. Supervised field work including institutional visits, practical training in institutions, social work camps etc. and the submission of project report on a selected topic

are compulsory. In the first year there are seven papers including social sciences, principles and methods of social work etc. In the second year specialisation courses are provided in Industrial Relations, Rural Social Welfare, or Medical Social Work and Probation. Central Ministries of Labour, Community Projects etc. have recognised the Diploma for purposes of appointment as per rules framed under Factories Acts etc.

*Udaipur School of Social Work, Udaipur, Rajasthan, 1959*

PRINCIPAL: DR. P. T. THOMAS

The school was founded in 1959 by the Rajasthan Vidyapeeth, Udaipur. It is affiliated to the University of Udaipur for the M.A. Degree in Social Work. In the first year instruction is provided in basic social sciences and in principles and methods of social work etc. In the second year in addition to the papers common to all, one special paper may be offered. There are facilities for specialization in one of the following fields such as Labour, Rural, Correctional and Tribal. Organized field work for about 15 hours per week will have to be put in during the two years. Project report is to be submitted to the University, on the basis of which there will be a viva voce examination. In the University Examination those getting an aggregate of 60 per cent and 48 per cent of the marks will be placed respectively in the First and Second Divisions. In order to obtain a pass 36 per cent of the aggregate and prescribed minimums in each paper must be obtained. A three-month Block Field Work Placement in an approved agency after the course is compulsory and the degree will be awarded only after satisfactory completion of this Block Placement. The maximum intake per year is about 30 students.

*Department of Labour and Social Welfare,  
Bhagalpur University,  
Bhagalpur-7, Bihar, 1959*

HEAD: PROF. B. P. VERMA

The two-year course leads to the M.A. Degree in Labour and Social Welfare of the Bhagalpur University. Both men and women are

admitted. Thirty-two students are admitted every year. Graduates of social science are preferred. Field work includes study tour for two months, practical training in one industrial unit for three months and data collection for research for one month. Theory papers cover Economics, Psychology, Labour Laws, Personnel Administration etc.

*National Institute of Social Sciences,  
30, Cubbon Road, Bangalore-1,  
Mysore State, 1960*

DIRECTOR: MR. S. PRASAD

A two-year post-graduate course leading to the Diploma in Social Administration is conducted by the Institute. Graduates preferably in social sciences are admitted. Special consideration is shown to those deputed by factories, institutions etc. In addition to basic courses provided in social sciences and methods, specialised courses are provided in one of the following fields, such as Labour Welfare, Correctional Administration, and Medical and Psychiatric social work. Field work, Research Project etc. follow the pattern in other schools of social work. Applications on the prescribed forms should reach the Director by 20th June.

*School of Social Work, Roshni Nilaya,  
Jeppu, Mangalore-2, Mysore State, 1960*

DIRECTOR: MISS O. PEREIRA

The school provides social work training to women at the post-graduate and under-graduate levels. The graduates who successfully go through the course and put in all the requirements, receive the Diploma in social work. In the first year subjects like Social Work Philosophy, Indian Social Problems, Dynamics of Human Behaviour, Methods of Social Work etc. are covered. In the second year also there is no specialisation in any subject. All students cover all the important fields of social work such as Labour, Rural, Correctional etc. Supervised field work and research projects are an integral part of the training. The matriculates whose training also lasts two years receive a certificate.

*Indore School of Social Work,  
Indore Christian College, Indore, M.P., 1960.*

DIRECTOR: MISS MAVIS BOWEN

Two-year post-graduate course in social work is conducted from 1960 onwards. It is affiliated to the University of Vikram, Ujjain, for the degree of M.A. in social work. In addition to the University examination, the candidates must put in about 15 hours of field work per week and also submit a project report. In order to pass, candidates must secure minimum of 36 per cent marks in each paper and an aggregate of 40 per cent marks. Those getting 60 per cent and 48 per cent in the aggregate will be declared to have passed in the First, and Second Division respectively. Courses in the first year cover social sciences and social work methods and in the second year specialisation courses in Labour Welfare, Rural Welfare or Family and Child Welfare may be taken up.

*Department of Social Work,  
S.H. College, Thevara, Ernakulam, Kerala, 1961.*

HEAD: REV. FRANCIS SALES, C.M.I.

For many years the College had been conducting the one-year post-graduate course leading to Kerala University Diploma in social work. But from 1961 onwards in addition to the one year course, the Department conducts two-year training programme leading to the Master's Degree in Social Work of the Kerala University. Programmes of field work, class-room instruction and research study are on the same pattern as in other two-year post-graduate training institutions in social work.

*P.S.G. School of Social Work,  
Peela Medu, Coimbatore, Madras State, 1962.*

DIRECTOR: MR. KOIL PILLAI

The two-year course leading to the Masters Degree in Social Work of the Madras University has been started in 1962. Earlier the school used to conduct one-year course leading to the Diploma in



Social Work of the Madras University which has now been discontinued. The requirements for the degree course in regard to class instructions, field work, research etc. are as per Madras University Regulations.

*Department of Social Work,  
Stella Maris College, Madras, 1962.*

HEAD: REV. SR. EANSWIDA

The one-year course in Social Work leading to the Madras University Diploma, which used to be conducted in this college for many years, has been discontinued and from 1962 onwards the two-year course leading to the Masters degree in Social Work of the Madras University has been introduced. Requirements regarding class instruction, field work, research project etc. are as laid down by the Madras University. Admission is limited to 20 women. Lectures for three subjects are on inter-collegiate basis.

*Department of Social Anthropology and Social Welfare,  
Karnatak University, Dharwar, Mysore State, 1962.*

HEAD: DR. K. ISHWARAN

The two-year course leads to the M.A. (Social Work) degree of the Karnatak University. Class instructions, field work and research requirements are on the pattern in similar departments. Admission is limited to 10 students. Specialisation in a selected field can be offered in the second year.

*Department of Social Work,  
Loyola College, Madras-34, 1963.*

HEAD: DR. W. T. V. ADISESHIAH

The department conducts two-year course leading to the Masters degree in Social Work of the Madras University. Agency visits, fifteen hours of field work per week, submission of project report etc. are required. Specialisation in any selected field is offered in the second year. Admission is limited to 20 per year. A minimum

of 40 per cent in theory papers and 50 in Field Work and project report is required for pass. Those who get this minimum will be placed in Second Division and those who get 60 per cent in aggregate in the First Division.

The Institute of Social Sciences at Loyola College (founded in 1957) with Rev. A. Devasia, S.J. as Director has discontinued its two-year diploma course in Social Service following the starting of the University Department of Social Work at Loyola College.

*University of Gorakpur  
and  
University of Bihar*

These universities also conduct two-year courses in Social Work and/or Labour Welfare leading to the Masters Degree in these subjects.

*One-year Post-graduate Courses Leading to  
University Diplomas*

One-year post-graduate courses in social work are offered in some colleges affiliated to the Universities of Kerala, Madras, Allahabad and Calcutta.

*Institutions Conducting Courses at the Graduate Level  
Leading to B.A. in Social Sciences and/or Social Work*

- (1) W. G. B. College, Bhimavaram, Andhra.
- (2) Department of Social Sciences, Annamalai University, Annamalai Nagar.
- (3) Department of Sociology and Social Work, Lucknow University, Lucknow.

*Institutions Conducting Two-year Courses in Social  
Service at the Under-graduate Level*

- St. Xavier's College, Bombay-1.  
St. Aloysius College, Mangalore.  
St. Philomena's College, P.B. No. 30, Mysore.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

### *Part I: Methods of Social Work*

#### CHAPTER I: EVOLUTION OF SOCIAL WORK

- FINK, A. E., *The Field of Social Work*, Henry Holt, New York, 1946.
- Bureau of Research and Publications, *Current Trends in Social Work in India*, Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay.
- FRIEDLANDER, W. A., *Introduction to Social Welfare*, Prentice Hall Inc. Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 1957.
- HODGES, M. B., *Social Work Year Book*, Russel Sage Foundation, 1961.
- WADIA, A. R. (Ed.), *History and Philosophy of Social Work in India*, Allied Publishers, Bombay, 1961.
- KHINDUKA, S. K. (Ed.), *Social Work in India*, Saivodaya Sahitya Samaj, Jaipur, 1962.

#### CHAPTER II: SOCIAL CASE WORK

- HAMILTON, G., *Theory and Practice of Social Case Work*, The New York School of Social Work, Columbia University Press, New York, 1952.
- KASTUS, CORA, *Principles and Techniques of Social Case Work*, Family Service Association of America, 1 - Lexington Avenue, New York 16, N.Y., 1953.
- Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, *The Boundaries of Case Work*, Park Crescent, London W.1., 1956.
- APTEKAR, HERBLRT, *Basic Concepts in Social Case Work*, University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1941.
- PEARLMAN, H. H., *Social Case Work*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1957.
- GARRETT, ANNETTE, *Interviewing: Its Principles and Practices*, Family Welfare Association of America, New York, 1942.

#### CHAPTER III: SOCIAL GROUP WORK

- TRECKER H. B., *Social Group Work—Principles and Practice*, The Women's Press, New York, 1948.
- DIMOCK, H. S. and H. B. TRECKER, *The Supervision of Group Work and Recreation*, Association Press, New York, 1951.
- LINDSAY, A. W., *Group Work Recording—Principles and Practice*, The Women's Press, New York, 1952.
- WILSON AND RYLAND, *Social Group Work Practice*, Houghton Mifflin Co., Cambridge, 1949.

- COYLE, G. L., *Group Experience and Democratic Values*, The Women's Press, New York, 1947.
- TEAD, ORDWAY, *The Art of Leadership*, McGraw-Hill, London, 1935.

#### CHAPTER IV: COMMUNITY ORGANISATION

- MACMILLAN, WANE, *Community Organization for Social Welfare*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1945.
- SANDERSON, D. AND R. A. POLSON, *Rural Community Organization*, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1939.
- UNESCO, *Principles of Community Development*, Unesco Publications, New York.
- C. P. A., *Kurukshetra* (a symposium on Community Development in India), Publications Division, Government of India, New Delhi, 1955.
- MURRAY, G. ROSS, *Community Organization—Theory and Principles*, Harper Brothers, New York, 1955.
- ARTHUR HILLMAN, *Community Organization and Planning*. Macmillan and Company, New York, 1950.

#### CHAPTER V: SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

- WITMER, H. L., *Social Work — An Analysis of a Social Institution*, Rinehart and Company Inc., New York, 1950.
- TRECKER, H. B., *Group Process in Administration*, The Women's Press, New York.
- MACMILLAN, *Encyclopedia of Social Sciences*, Macmillan and Co., New York, 1953.
- HISCOCK, I. V., *Community Health Organization—A Manual of Administration and Procedure Primarily for Urban Areas*, Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1939.
- CLARK, JOHN J., *Social Welfare*, Isaac Pitman, London, 1953.
- DUNHAM, ARTHUR, "Administration of Social Agencies" *Social Work Year Book*, 1949.

#### CHAPTER VI: SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH

- YOUNG, P., *Scientific Social Surveys and Research*, Prentice Hall, New York, 1951.
- LUNDBERG, G. A., *Social Research—Methods of Gathering Data*, Longman's Green and Co., New York, 1942.
- ODUM, H. AND JOCHER, K., *An Introduction to Social Research*, Henry Holt and Co., New York.
- ELMER, M. C., *Social Research*, Prentice Hall, 1939.
- GOODDE AND HATT, *Methods in Social Research*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1952.
- JAHODA AND OTHERS, *Research Methods in Social Relations*, Dryden, New York, 1960.

#### CHAPTER VII: SOCIAL ACTION

- DONALD, S. HOWARD, "Social Work and Social Reform", *New Directions in*

- Social Work*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1954.
- PORTER, LEE, "Social Work as Cause and Function", *Social Work as a Cause and Function and Other Papers*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1937.
- KENETH, L. M. PRAY, *Social Work in a Revolutionary Age and Other Papers*, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1949.
- SCHLESIGNER, ARTHUR M., *The American as Reformer*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1950.
- GIBB, CECIL A., "Leadership", *Handbook of Social Psychology*, Gardner Lindzey (Ed.), Addison-Wesley, 1954
- HAGER, DON J., "Problem of Changing Neighbourhoods", *Congress Weekly*, Vol. 21, No. 5, February, 1954.

### Part II: Fields of Social Work

#### CHAPTER VIII: RURAL WELFARE

- NANAVATHI, M. B., AND ANJARIA, *The Indian Rural Problem*, The Indian Society of Agricultural Economics, Bombay.
- DESAI, A. R., *Introduction to Rural Sociology in India*, The Indian Society of Agricultural Economics, Bombay.
- Planning Commission, *Second Five Year Plan*—Government Publications, New Delhi, 1956.
- DUBE, S. C., *India's Changing Villages*, Routledge and Paul, London, 1958.
- BHATTACHARYYA, S. N., *Villages on the March*, Metropolitan Book Co., Delhi, 1959.
- Govt. Publications, *Community Development Programme in India*, Manager of Publications, Delhi, 1955.

#### CHAPTER IX: COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

- MUKERJI, B., *Community Development in India*, Orient Longmans Ltd., Calcutta, 1961.
- KRISHNAMACHARI, V. T., *Community Development in India*, Govt of India Publications, Delhi-6.
- Publication Division, *India 1961*, Govt. of India Publications, Delhi-6, 1961.
- Publication Division, *Evaluation Reports on Community Projects*, Govt. of India Publications, Delhi-6.
- DEY, S. K., *Community Development*, Vols. I & II, Kitab Mahal, Allahabad, 1960.
- COLDWELL, M. J. AND OTHERS, *Report of a Community Development Evaluations Mission in India*, Ministry of C.D. and Cooperation, New Delhi, 1959.

#### CHAPTER X: LABOUR WELFARE

- Industrial Welfare Society, *Welfare in Industry*, London, 1952.
- SRIVASTAVA, K. N., *Industrial Peace and Labour in India*, Kitab Mahal, Allahabad, 1954.

- YODLER, DALE, *Personnel Management and Industrial Relations*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 1956.
- GIRI, V. V., *Labour Problems in Indian Industry*, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, 1958.
- MEYERS, C. A., *Industrial Relations in India*, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, 1958.
- MUKERJEE, R. K., *The Indian Working Class*, Hind Kitabs, Bombay, 1951.

#### CHAPTER XI: LABOUR LEGISLATION

- AIYAR, A. N., *Encyclopedia of Labour Laws and Industrial Legislation with Supplements*, Federal Law Dept., Delhi, 1956-57.
- ROSE, S. N., *Indian Labour Code*, 3rd (Ed.) Eastern Law House, Calcutta, 1958.
- I. L. O., *Labour Legislation in India*, I. L. O., New Delhi, 1957.
- Govt. Publications, *Indian Labour Year Book*, Labour Bureau, Simla.
- Govt. Publications, *Main Report of the Labour Investigation Committee*, Manager of Publications, Delhi, 1946.
- Govt. Publications, *Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories* (Annual), Manager of Publications, Delhi.

#### CHAPTER XII: CHILD WELFARE

- BENJAMIN, ZOE, *Emotional Problems of Childhood*, University of London Press, London, 1948.
- WITMER, HELEN LFLAND AND R. KOTINSK (Eds.), *Mid Century White House Conference on Child and Youth*, Harper and Bros., New York, 1953.
- Indian Council of Child Welfare, *Report of the International Conference of Child Welfare held at Bombay*, Queensway Barracks, New Delhi, 1952.
- KULKARNI, V. M., "Child Welfare in India," *Social Welfare in India*, Govt. of India Publications, Delhi, 1960.
- SABNIS, M. S., "A Decade of Child Welfare", *Indian Conference of Social Work Bulletin* (Special number), December, 1957, Madras.
- Govt. Publications, *Report on Delinquent Children and Juvenile Offenders in India*, Manager of Publications, Delhi, 1950.

#### CHAPTER XIII: CHILD GUIDANCE CLINIC

- DIMICHAO, S. G., *Vocational Rehabilitation of the Mentally Retarded*, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1950.
- BURBURY, BALINT AND YAPP, *Child Guidance*, Macmillan and Co., London, 1947.
- VAKEEL, JAI, *Educating the Mentally Handicapped*, Ravi Lodge, Warden Road, Bombay-26.
- DAVIDOFF, EUGENE AND ELINER S. NOETZEL, *Child Guidance Approach to Juvenile Delinquency*, Child Care Publications, New York, 1951.
- Central Social Welfare Board, *Report of the Advisory Committee on After Care Programme*, G.S.W.B., New Delhi, 1955.
- Central Social Welfare Board, *Report of the Advisory Committee on Social and Moral Hygiene*, C.S.W.B., New Delhi, 1955.

## CHAPTER XIV: WELFARE OF TRIBAL AND BACKWARD CLASSES

- Government of India, *Social Welfare in India*, Government of India, New Delhi, 1959.
- Indian Conference of Social Work, *Special Anniversary Number*, December, 1957.
- Planning Commission, *Third Five-Year Plan*, Government Publications, Delhi, 1961.
- WADIA, A. R., *History and Philosophy of Social Work in India*, Allied Publishers, Bombay, 1961.
- Government of India, *Report of the Backward Classes Commission*, Manager of Publications, Delhi, 1955.
- Government of India, *Report of the Criminal Tribes Act Enquiry Committee*, 1949-50, Manager of Publication, Delhi, 1951.

## CHAPTER XV: JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

- AKKHORN, A., *Wayward Youth*, Meridian Books, New York, 1957.
- U.N. Publications, *Comparative Survey on Juvenile Delinquency—Part IV Asia and Far East*, U.N., New York.
- RECKLESS, W. G., *Juvenile Delinquency*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York.
- Planning Commission, *Social Legislation—its role in Social Welfare*, Government Publications, New Delhi, 1956.
- Ministry of Information, Government of India, *India 1961*, Government Publications, New Delhi, 1961.
- Government of India, *Report on Delinquent Children and Juvenile Offenders in India*, Manager of Publications, Delhi, 1950.

## CHAPTER XVI: CARE OF THE DESTITUTE AND THE HANDICAPPED

- CHATTURJEE, KALIDAS, *Statistical Survey of the Present Educational Condition of the Infirm, the Deaf Mutes, the Blind, the Feeble-minded*, Calcutta University, Calcutta.
- HALDER, R. M., *Society and the Visually Handicapped*, Thacker & Co., Bombay, 1943.
- KUMARAPPA, J. M., *Our Beggar Problem, How to Tackle it*, Padma Publications, Bombay, 1945.
- CLARKE, JOHN S., *Disabled Citizens*, George Allen and Unwin, 40, Museum Street, London, W.C.1., 1950.
- BLUNT, E. (Ed.), *Social Services in India*, H.M.S.O., London, 1946.
- CAPON, N. D., "The Treatment of the Physically Handicapped Child," *Physiotherapy*, November, 1950.

## CHAPTER XVII: SOCIAL LEGISLATION

- Planning Commission, *Social Legislation—its role in Social Welfare*, Govt. of India Publications, Delhi-6, 1956.
- Planning Commission, *Third Five-Year Plan*, Govt. of India Publications, Delhi-6, 1950.

- Planning Commission, *Social Welfare in India*, Government Publications, Delhi-6, 1955.
- NATARAJAN, S., *Century of Social Reforms in India*, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, 1959.
- BASU, D. D., *Commentary on the Constitution of India*, S. C. Sarkar, Calcutta, 1956.
- GLEDHILL, A., *Republic of India: The Development of its Laws and Constitution*, Stevens, London, 1954.

#### CHAPTER XVIII: MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK

- BANERJEE, G. R., *Social Service Department in a Hospital*, Bureau of Research and Publications, T.I.S.S., Bombay, 1950.
- RICHARDON, H. B., *Patients have Families*, Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1948.
- WADIA, A. R., *The Handicapped Child*, Bureau of Research and Publications, Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay.
- BANERJEE, G. R., *Towards Better understanding of the Sick Child*, 105-109, Ghodbunder Road, Andheri, Bombay, 1952.
- TOWLE, CHARLOTT, *Common Human Needs*, U.S. Government Printing, Washington, 1945.
- ALEXANDER, HORACE, *New Citizens of India*, O.U.P., Bombay, 1951.

#### CHAPTER XIX: PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK

- LOWERY, *Psychiatry for Social Workers*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1950.
- ENGLISH AND PEARSON, *The Emotional Problems of Living*, Allen E. Unwin, London, 1955.
- BERKMAN, TESSIE, D., *Practice of Social Workers in Psychiatric Hospitals and Clinics*, American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, New York, 1953.
- American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, *Education for Psychiatric Social Work*, Proceedings of the Dartmouth Conference, New York, 1950.
- TOWLE, CHARLOTTE, *Social Case Records from Psychiatric Clinics*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1941.
- ZILBOORG, GREGORY, *Mind, Medicine and Man*, Harcourt, 1943.

#### CHAPTER XX: SOCIAL EDUCATION

- Government of India, *Manual on Social Education*, Government Publications, New Delhi, 1956.
- Ministry of Education, Government of India, *All-India Report of Social Education for 1947-51*, Government Publications, New Delhi, 1954.
- NAIK, J. P., *Research and Experiment in Rural Education*, Ministry of Education, Government of India, New Delhi, 1953.
- BULSARA, J. F., *Mass and Adult Education in India*, Bombay, 1938.



## CHAPTER XXI: STUDENTS AND SOCIAL WORK

Bureau of Research and Publications, *Students and Social Work*, Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, 1948.

WHITEHEAD, T. N., *Leadership in a Free Society*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1937.

Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bureau of Research and Publications, *The Indian Journal of Social Work*, T.I.S.S., Bombay.

The Indian Institute of Social Order, *Social Action*, I.I.S.O., Poona.

C.S.W.B., *Social Welfare*, C.S.W.B., New Delhi.

Planning Commission, *The New India—Progress through Democracy*, Macmillan 1958.

## CHAPTER XXII: CENTRAL SOCIAL WELFARE BOARD

KULKARNI, P. D., *The Central Social Welfare Board—A New Experiment in Welfare Administration*, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, 1961.

KULKARNI, P. D., "Social Welfare in Five Year Plans", *History and Philosophy of Social Work in India*, Allied Publishers, Bombay, 1961.

DURGABAI, DESHMUKH, "Report to the Annual Conference of Chairmen of State Boards", *Social Welfare*, Vol. IX, No. 1 (April, 1962), Publications Division, Delhi-6.

C.S.W.B., *Progress Reports, Annual*, C.S.W.B., New Delhi.

C.S.W.B., *Social Welfare* (Monthly), C.S.W.B., New Delhi.

Govt. of India, *Third Five-Year Plan*, Manager of Publications, Delhi 1961.

## CHAPTER XXIII: U.N. AGENCIES FOR SOCIAL WELFARE

FARMAN, CARL H., "World Developments in Social Security", *Social Security Bulletin*, Vol. 13, No. 3, March, 1950.

FINER, HERMAN, *The United Nations Economic and Social Council*, World Peace Foundation, New York, 1946.

Unicef—*Its Origin, Development, Policies and Operations in Asia and Other Countries*, New York, 1950.

United Nations, *U.N. Year Book*, Office of Public Information, New York.

KAUL, N. N., *India and the ILO*, Metropolitan Book Co., Delhi, 1956. \*

KARUNAKARAN, K. P., *India in World Affairs*, O.U.P. Bombay, 1958.

## CHAPTER XXIV: FIELD WORK

LYNDELL, SCOTT, "The Function of Field Work in Professional Education", *Social Service Review*, December, 1951.

Delhi School of Social Work, *Field Work Supervision—a Seminar Report*, Delhi-8, 1957.

Madras School of Social Work *Field Work Manual*, Madras, 8, 1948.

" *Field Work Contents*, Madras-8, (Mimographed), 1961.

LINDENBERG, SIDNEY, J., *Supervision in Social Group Work*, Association Press, New York, 1939.

YOUNG HUSBAND, EILEEN L., *Report on Employment and Training of Social Workers*, Constable, Edinburg, 1947.

#### CHAPTER XXV: SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

HELEN. R., WRIGHT, "Social Work Education: Problems for the Future," *New Directions in Social Work*, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1954.

MACMILLAN, *Encyclopedia of Social Sciences*, Macmillan and Co., New York, 1961.

GUPTA, K. S., "Welfare Work as a Career," *Management Executive—Special Number*, Bombay-8, 1960.

MONROE, BERKOWITZ AND PHILIP THOMAS, "The Training of Labour Welfare Officers," *The Indian Journal of Social Work*, Vol. XXI, (September, 1960), Bombay-71, 1960.

JAGANNADHAM, V., AND S. P. NANDWANI, *Training for Social Welfare Work, (Courses and Institutions)* Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi, 1960.

United Nations, *Training for Social Work, Third International Survey*, U.N. Dept. of Economic and Social Affairs, New York, 1958.

## INDEX



## INDEX

- Adisesiah, W. T. V., 247**  
**Adoption, 114**  
     social worker's role in, 114, 115  
**Adult Education, 180**  
**After-Care Associations, 144**  
**After-Care Hostels, 144**  
**After-Care and Social and Moral Hygiene, 202**  
**Agra University, Institute of Social Sciences, 242**  
**All India Institute of Health and Public Hygiene, 211**  
**Andhra University, Department of Sociology and Social Work, 243**  
**Annamalai University, Department of Social Sciences, 248**  
**Anti-Malaria Campaign, 171, 211**  
**Ashram Schools, 132**  
  
**Backward Classes Commission, 135**  
**Baker, (Miss) Dorothy M., 242**  
**Baroda University, Faculty of Social Work, 232**  
**B.C.G. Vaccination, 171, 211**  
**B.D.O., 89**  
**Beggary, 6**  
     elimination of, 149  
**Behaviour, meaning of, 13**  
**Besant, Annie, 3**  
**Bhagalpur University, Department of Labour and Social Welfare, 244**  
**Bharat Sevak Samaj, 195**  
**Bhir, B. S., 237**  
**Bhimavaram, W. G. B. College, 248**  
**Bihar University, 248**  
**Bombay Children's Act, 160**  
**Bombay Labour Institute, 238**  
**Bombay Labour Welfare Fund Act, 195**  
  
**Borstal Schools, 143, 144**  
**Bowen, (Miss) Mavis, 246**  
  
**Central Social Welfare Board, 197-206**  
     establishment of, 196  
     finances of, 202, 203  
     objectives of, 197, 198  
     procedure for applying to, 199  
**Central Institute of Study and Research, Mussoorie, 89**  
**Certified Schools, 142**  
     Junior and senior, 160  
**Charity approach, 4**  
**Charitable Institutions, 4**  
**Child Care Institutions, minimum standards, 152-155**  
**'Child Guidance Clinic, 123-128**  
     intake and data collection in, 124, 125  
     parents' role, 127  
     referrals, 123, 124  
     team work,\*127, 128  
     treatment, 125  
**Child Marriage, 4**  
**Children, growth and development of, 28**  
**Childrens' Acts, 160**  
**Childrens' Aid Societies, 144**  
**Children's Charter, 116-119**  
**Christian Outlook, 4**  
**Community, concept of, 35**  
**Community Development, 40, 41**  
**Community Development Ministry, 86**  
**Community Development Projects, 84-91**  
     emphasis on agriculture in, 88  
     evaluation of, 90, 91  
     financing of, 87

- N.E.S., as part of, 84  
 non-official participation in, 82  
 objects of, 85  
 organisation of, 86  
*Panchayati Raj* and, 88, 89  
 physical achievements of, 90  
 programmes in, 84, 85  
 Community Organisation, 35-45  
   basic concepts in, 36, 37  
   certain 'do's' and 'don'ts' in, 37, 38  
   community participation in, 37, 86  
   definition of, 35, 36  
   direct and indirect approach in, 42, 43  
   new approach in, 43  
   object of, 36  
   planned activities in, 44  
   process of, 38, 39  
   rural and urban settings in, 43  
   varying programmes in, 44, 45  
 Conscience, Voice of, 14  
 Co-operative movement, 86  
 Craft instructor, 206  
 Criminal Tribes Act, 136  
  
 Dadlani, G. G., 240  
*Dais*, 202, 206  
*Dayabhaga*, 163  
 D.A., 105  
 De-notified Tribes, 136  
 Dependents Benefit, 106  
 Destitute and Handicapped, 147-155  
   care of, 148, 149  
   institutions for, 151  
   rehabilitation of, 150, 151  
   special problems of, 147, 148  
 Defences, 15  
 Delhi School of Social Work, 239  
 Deshmukh, (Mrs.) Durgabhai, 206  
 Devasia, (Rev.), A. 248  
*Devadasis*, 161  
 Disablement Benefit, 106  
 District Project Implementing Committee, 205, 206  
  
 Eanswida, (Rev.) Sr., 247  
 ECOSOCO, 207, 208  
  
 Ego, 14, 15  
 Ernakulam, Department of Social Work, S.H. College, Thevara, 246  
 E.S.I. Corporation, 105  
 E.S.I. Scheme, 105, 106  
  
 Factories Act, 1948, 98-100  
 Field Work, 215-227  
   adaptability of methods, 216, 217  
   agency co-operation for, 226, 227  
   agency visits as part of, 218  
   block placement for, 220, 221  
   camps and study tours, 221, 222  
   evaluation of, 225, 226  
   integration of theory and practice in, 215, 216  
   labour placements, 220  
   placement for, 218, 219  
   supervision of, 222, 223  
 Field Work Practices, 217, 218  
 Field Work Reports, 224  
 Foster Care, procedures for placement, 113  
 Foster Parents, 114  
 Freud, 14  
  
 Gandhiji, 3, 7, 82, 84, 189  
 General practitioners in social work, 67, 68  
 George, K. N., 241  
 Gokhale, 3  
 Gorakpur University, 248  
 Gore, M. S., 237  
 Group conflicts, 33  
 Group life, need for, 27  
 Group work (*see* Social group work), *Gram sahayaks*, 89  
*Gram sevaks*, 89  
*Gram sevikas*, 89, 202, 206  
 Gujarat University School of Social Sciences, Ahmedabad, 241  
  
 Hindu Code Bill, 163  
 Hindu laws of inheritance and succession, 162, 163  
 Hindu Marriage Act, 163

- Id, 14, 15
- I.L.O., 213, 214
- Immoral traffic, 160
- India* 1961, 89
- Indian Adult Education Association, 184
- Indian Conference of Social Work, 152
- Indian Institute of Social Welfare and Business Management, Calcutta, 238
- Indian Mines Act, 100, 101
- Indian Penal Code, 159
- Indian Railway Act, 102
- Indo-U.S. Technical Co-operation Agreement, 1952, 87
- Indore School of Social Work, 246
- Industrial Disputes Act, 108
- Institute of Social Sciences, Kasi Vidyapeeth, Varanasi, 238
- Institute of Social Sciences, Loyola College, 248
- Ishwaran, K., 247
- Jamia Millia*, New Delhi, 186
- Joint Family, 4
- Juvenile Courts, 141, 142, 160
- Juvenile Delinquency,
  - causes of, 138
  - economic factors in, 139, 140
  - multiple causation in, 140
  - psychological factors as related to, 139
- Juvenile Jail, 143
- Juveniles,
  - legislation on, 140, 141
  - preventive programmes for, 145, 146
  - social rehabilitation of, 144, 145
- Karnatak University, Department of Social Anthropology and Social Welfare, 247
- Koii Pillai, 246
- Labour Court, 107
- Labour Legislation, 98-109
- Labour Welfare, 92-97
  - definition of, 93
  - philosophy of, 92, 95
  - underlying motives in, 94, 95
- Labour Welfare Officer, 68, 96, 97, 102
- Leadership qualities, 33, 34
- Lepers Act, 158
- Literacy House, Lucknow, 186
- Loneliness, feeling of, 28
- Loyola College, Department of Social Work, Madras, 247
- Lucknow University, Department of Sociology and Social Work, 240, 248, 249
- Lunacy Act, 159
- Madras Children's Act, 103
- Madras School of Social Work, 232
- Mangalore School of Social Work, 245
- Maternity Benefit, 106
- Maternity Benefit Act, 105
- Mathai, (Mrs.) Achamma, 206
- Matriarchal system, 163
- Medical Benefit, 106
- Medical Social Work,
  - after-care work in, 171
  - assisting the family, 169, 170
  - education and persuasion in, 171
  - emotional and social factors in, 166
  - helping the patient in, 169
  - psycho-somatic approach in, 167
  - progress of, 172
  - role of, 165
  - services rendered, 168
  - team work in, 168
  - work with community in, 170, 171
- Mental Illness,
  - causes of, 173, 174
  - social and psychological factors in, 174
- Merchant Shipping Act, 102
- Mines Maternity Benefit Act, 105
- Minimum Wages Act, 103
- Mitakshara*, 163
- Moorthy, M. V., 243
- Mukhya sevikas*, 89, 209
- National Development Council, 86

- National Institute of Social Sciences, Bangalore, 245  
 National Programmes, participation, 67  
 National social service for youth, 195, 196  
 Nehru's letter on State Boards, 204  
 Nirmala Niketan, School of Social Work, Bombay, 242  
  
*Panchayat Samiti*, 88  
 Patna University, Department of Labour and Social Welfare, 239  
 Payment of Wages Act, 103  
 Pereira, (Miss) O., 245  
 Personality, structure of, 14  
 Plantation Labour Act, 101  
 Prasad, S., 245  
 Probation officers, 141, 142, 144, 160  
 Professional Social Work, 4 7, 189, 190  
 Professional social workers, 5  
     training for, 5-7  
 Prohibition, 161  
 Prohibition Enquiry Committee, 161  
 Project Centres, 202  
 Project Implementing Committee, 201  
 Prostitution, 160, 161  
 Provident Fund, 103  
 P.S.G. School of Social Work, Coimbatore, 246  
 Psychiatric Social Work, 173-179  
     after-care work, 176  
     data collection, 177  
     helping the family and patient, 177, 178  
     need for, 175  
     role of case worker, 175  
     team work, 179  
     war time development of, 178, 179  
 Psychiatric social worker, 125  
  
 Raipur Institute (near Dehra Dun), 89  
 Rajadhyaksha Award of 1947, 102  
 Ramakrishna Mission, 132  
 Ranade, S. N., 239  
 Red Cross Society, 132  
 Reformatory Schools, 143  
 Remand Homes, 141  
 Rural Welfare, 79-83  
     agricultural reconstruction in, 80, 81  
     co-operative activity for, 83, 84  
     cultural activities for, 82  
     educational facilities for, 81, 82  
     health and sanitation in, 82, 83  
  
 Sales, (Rev.) Francis, 246  
*Samaj Kalyan*, 203  
 San Francisco Conference, 211  
 Sanyal, D. K., 237  
*Sati*, 162  
 Saxena, R. N., 242  
 Scheduled Castes and Tribes, 134-137  
     welfare programmes for, 135-136  
 Seamen's Employment offices, 102  
 Servants of India Society, 132  
 Shastri, R. R., 238  
 Shenoy, B. R., 241  
 Shops Act, 103  
 Sickness Benefit, 106  
 Sigmund Freud's theories, 173  
 Sinha, G. P., 239  
 Social Action, 63-75  
     absence of set procedures in, 74  
     impact of social conditions in, 70, 71  
     *modus operandi* in, 74, 75  
     objectives of, 69  
     social work approach in, 65, 66  
 Social Administration, 46-58  
     agency programmes in, 48  
     authority in, 48, 49  
     community relations in, 55  
     co-ordination in, 52, 53  
     efficiency in, 54, 55  
     enabling process in, 51  
     evaluation in, 57, 58  
     group feeling in, 50, 51  
     group process in, 49, 50  
     human problems in, 54  
     importance of, 55  
     nature of, 47  
     planning in, 53, 54  
     principles of, 46, 47  
     process of, 48



- public relations in, 55-57
- publicity in, 56, 57
- records and reports in, 57
- role of staff in, 55
- shifting emphasis in, 51, 52
- Social Case Work, 8-24**
  - acceptance in, 11
  - basic assumptions of, 8
  - client in, 12, 16, 21, 23
  - confidentiality in, 12
  - definition of, 8
  - democratic contents of, 9, 10
  - diagnosis in, 17, 20, 23
  - direct and indirect help in, 22
  - interviews in, 20, 21
  - non-judgemental attitude in, 21
  - person in, 13
  - problem in, 16
  - professional relationship in, 10, 11
  - rapport* in, 11
  - self-determination in, 10
  - sources of information in, 16
  - study in, 17-19
- Social Education, 180-187**
  - community centres for, 185
  - educational caravans for, 186
  - history of, 183, 184
  - Janatha Colleges* for, 186
  - new approach in, 183
  - objectives of, 181
  - role of, 182
  - students participation in, 186, 187
  - under Five Year Plans, 184
- Social Education Boards, 184**
- Social Education Departments, 184**
- Social Group Work, 24-32**
  - controlled environment in, 26
  - definition of, 26, 27
  - democratic management in, discussions in, 32
  - object of, 25, 29
  - positive relationship in, 26
  - preventive aspects of, 31
  - programmes in, 30, 31
  - role of worker in, 29, 30
  - understanding and acceptance in, 29
- Social Legislation, 150-164**
- Social Work Research, 59-62**
  - analysis of data in, 61, 62
  - different levels in, 60
  - investigation as part of, 60, 61
  - nature of, 59, 60
  - observation in, 60
  - qualitative aspect of, 62
  - Random Sampling Method in, 60
  - scientific standards in, 62
- Social Work Education, 228-250**
  - advance made in U.S.A. and Western Countries, 228, 229, 235
  - general pattern of, 230
  - general or specialisation courses, 232, 233
  - labour schools and, 233, 234
  - methods of social work in, 231
  - nature of, 228
  - origin of, 229
  - undergraduate and short-term courses in, 234, 235
- Social Problems, 3**
- Social Rehabilitation, 5, 6**
- Social Security, 4**
- Social Service, 4**
- Social Service Leagues, 190, 191**
- Social Service Camps, 191, 192**
  - guiding principles in, 192, 193
- Social Welfare*, 203**
- Social Work,**
  - historical evolution of, 3
  - as women's field, 235, 236
- Social Worker, 67, 70**
  - functions of, 71
  - professional infiltration by, 73
  - reaching the masses by, 72, 73
- Socio-economic background of India, 5**
- Socio-economic Problems, 4**
- Socio-economic surveys, 193**
- Stridhana*, 163**
- Strikes, 107**
- Student's Social Work, 188-196**
  - limitations of, 194, 195
  - organised activities, 188, 189
  - voluntary effort in, 189, 190
- St. Aloysius College, Mangalore, 248**

- St. Philomena's College, Mysore, 248**  
**St. Xavier's College, Bombay, 248**  
**State Social Welfare Advisory Board, 199**  
**Stella Maris College, Department of Social Work, Madras, 247**  
**Susil Chandra, 240**  
**Super-ego, 14, 15**
- Tagore, 82  
 Tata Institute of Social Sciences, Bombay, 5, 232, 237  
 T.B., 83, 132  
 Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 101  
 Thomas, P. T., 244  
 Trade Union Act, 107  
 Trade Unions,  
     recognised, 107  
     registered, 107  
 Tribal Welfare, 129-137  
     agriculture in, 130, 131  
     approach to, 129, 130  
     measures for, 131, 132, 133
- Udaipur School of Social Work, 244  
 U.N. agencies, 207-214
- U.N. declaration of the rights of the child, 119-122  
 UNESCO, 208, 209  
 UNICEF, 132, 210, 211  
 UNRRA, 210  
 Untouchability, 157, 158  
 Urban Family Welfare Projects, 201  
     administration of, 201, 202
- Vagrancy and beggary, 158  
 V.D., 132  
 Verma, B. P., 244  
*Vikas Adhikari*, 89  
 Village level worker, 87
- Welfare Extension Projects, 200  
 WHO, 83, 132, 211, 212  
 White House Conferences, 116  
 Workmen's Compensation Act, 104
- Xavier Institute of Social Service, Ranchi, 243  
 Xavier Labour Relations Institute, Jamshedpur, 240
- Zila Parishad*, 88, 89



# METHODS AND FIELDS OF SOCIAL WORK IN INDIA

K. K. Jacob

A REVISED, enlarged edition of *An Introduction to Social Work in India*, the present volume presents a comprehensive survey of social work methods and social welfare programmes in Indian conditions. The revision and expansion of the previous chapters and the three new chapters included in this second edition provide much wider coverage. The major theme of the book is the need for the acceptance of the scientific approach and the systematic programmes inherent in professional social work and the supreme need in India for combining these with the emotional content and stimulating nature of voluntary social work with its rich traditions and high aspirations.

Although written specially for University students, professional social work institutions and voluntary social workers, the simple and systematic presentation of the subject is bound to be of interest to the lay reader as well.

Prof. Jacob who hails from Kerala, holds a Master's Degree in Economics of the Madras University and a Master's Degree in Social Work of the Baroda University. He also did an advanced certificate course in Social Work at the School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago, U. S. A. From 1955-61 he served as Lecturer in the Department of Economics and as Assistant Director of the Institute of Social Sciences, Loyola College, Madras. Since 1961 Prof. Jacob has been Professor and Director of Field Work at the Jdaipnr School of Social Work, Rajasthan. During his visit to U. S. A. and Europe in 1963 he familiarised himself with social welfare programmes and social work education in these countries. A renowned social work educationist, Prof. Jacob is also the author of *Indian Economic Problems* in which according to the critics the author has "combined a most exhaustive and scholarly discussion with simple and lucid presentation, giving a short but clear picture of the economic scene as it obtains in India".

## SOME COMMENTS ON THE FIRST EDITION

"... The book covers almost everything known to professional social workers by way of methods and fields. An outstanding quality of the book is its organization, clarity and succinct expressions.... The bibliography at the end contains an admirable topic-wise selection of the best books. To the social work student this is an excellent handbook and to the general reader it is a very good introduction to the subject. This is to social work education in India what Fink's *Field of Social Work* is in America." *The Hindu*, Madras.

"... This work of Mr. Jacob's is written in a simple style and will be of interest to the lay person as well as the beginning student. There is an important role for works such as this, and the present volume is an important contribution to the development of social work literature in India." Dr. K. W. Kindlesperger, Syracuse University School of Social Work, U. S. A.

"... This book will satisfy all, for it is presented in a style suitable. The subject is one on which there is little literature in India, and therefore is an important new venture." *The A*